

A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF MANAGEMENT STYLES
AND LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR OF JAPANESE AND
AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS IN
TOKYO, JAPAN AND ATLANTA, GEORGIA

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF ATLANTA UNIVERSITY
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BY
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Statistical analyses of the data included factor analysis, regression analysis, and analysis of variance to determine the relationship of leadership behavior to demographics and organizational climate.

Conclusions

Japanese public school administrators' leadership behavior correlated significantly with family responsibility, organizational climate, health, and work experience. However, the results of the regression analysis indicated family responsibility and organizational climate were the primary determinants of Japanese public school administrator's leadership behavior. Whereas, the American public school administrator's leadership behavior was related to work experience, educational experience, organizational climate and financial status. However, the results of the regression analysis revealed that none of the variables were significant at the .05 level of significance.

In summary, Japanese public school administrator's leadership behavior appears to be more structured when compared to the considerate American public school administrator's leadership

behavior. Also, the organizational climate of Japan tends to be more paternal, controlled or closed when compared to the more open American organizational climate. It is this researcher's opinion that these findings suggest that both American and Japanese public school administrator's leadership behavior patterns, and their respective organizational climates are consistent to their cultural values.

ABSTRACT

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by Gloria M. Clark

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to compare two influential factors related to the leadership behavior of Japanese and American public school administrators. The main variables for the study were demographics and organizational climate.

Procedures

In order to obtain a better understanding of the management style and leadership behavior of Japanese public school administrators and their organizational climate, this researcher visited Tokyo, Japan for the summer, 1986. A meeting was held with the Ministry of Education and permission to conduct the study on a group of Japanese public school administrators was granted.

A composite questionnaire was distributed to Japanese and American public school administrators. The composite questionnaire measuring demographic, leadership behavior and

organizational climate was a composite of Baehr Experience and Background Questionnaire, Fleishman's Leadership Opinion Questionnaire and Halpin's Organizational Climate Descriptive Questionnaire, respectively.

Statistical analyses of the data included factor analysis, regression analysis, and analysis of variance to determine the relationship of leadership behavior to demographics and organizational climate.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgements	i
List of Tables	iii
List of Figures	iv
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
Statement of Problem	
Purpose	
Evolution of the Problem	
Theoretical Framework	
Null Hypotheses	
Definition of Terms	
Significance of the Study	
II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE.....	12
Leadership	
Organizational Environment/Climate	
Demographics	
III. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY.....	35
Subject	
Procedures	
Description of Settings	
Instruments	
IV. ANALYSIS OF DATA.....	43
V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	70
VI. BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	76
VII. APPENDICES.....	79
Appendix A - Instruments	
Appendix B - Correspondences	

LIST OF TABLES

1. Percentage Comparison of Age and School Achievement Levels of Japanese and American Public School Administrators.....	44
2. Japanese Public School Administrators Correlation Matrix....	46
3. American Public School Administrators Correlation Maxtrix...	49
4. Analysis of Variance Summary for Leadership Behavior and Country.....	53
5. Analysis of Variance Summary for Organizational Climate and Country.....	55
6. Japanese Public School Administrators Factor Analysis.....	57
7. American Public School Administrators Factor Analysis.....	61
8. Multiple Regression Using Japanese Public School Administrators' Leadership Behavior As Dependent Variable With Selected Independent Variables.....	65
9. Multiple Regression Using American Public School Administrators' Leadership Behavior As Dependent Variable With Selected Independent Variables.....	67

LIST OF FIGURES

Theoretical Framework-Integrative Contingency Model.....	5
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

The National Commission of Excellence in Education, A Nation at Risk (1983) and other groups report that American students appeared to be learning less.

Recent studies provided a grim picture of the academic achievement in the United States as compared with certain other nations, even in the elementary grades. Stevenson (1983) found that in mathematics, United States students fell farther behind the Japanese and Taiwanese at each grade level; and by 5th grade, the worst Asian classes in his large samples exceeded the best American class. Walberg's (1983) research and observations in elementary science classes in Japan corroborated Stevenson's findings. Recent achievement comparisons in high school mathematics also showed that American high school students score on average at the first or second percentile of Japanese norms.

This researcher posited that student achievement, or the lack of it, is in part predicated by the leadership behavior of school administrators based on the following research. Vaill (1982) found that leaders of high performing systems have strong feelings about the attainment of their systems' purposes, focus on key issues and variables, and put in extraordinary amounts of time to

achieve their purposes. In addition, Masasse (1984) found that principals of successful schools have a vision of what their schools should be and of their role in achieving it.

Consequently, this research sought to determine the nature of leadership behavior in public school administrators in diverse cultures such as Tokyo, Japan and Atlanta, Georgia, U.S.A.

Specifically, the research problem of this study dealt with the following questions:

- (1) What is the relationship between the demographics of the Japanese public school administrator and his/her leadership behavior?
- (2) What is the relationship between the organizational climate and the Japanese public school administrator's leadership behavior?
- (3) What is the relationship between the demographics of the American public administrator and his/her leadership behavior?
- (4) What is the relationship between the organizational climate and the American public school administrator's leadership behavior?
- (5) What is the difference between the leadership behavior of Japanese public school administrator and the leadership behavior of the American public administrator?

- (6) What is the difference between the Japanese organizational climate and the American organizational climate?

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to compare two influential factors related to the leadership behavior of Japanese and American public school administrators. The main variables for this investigation were demographics and organizational climate.

Evolution of the Problem

The school administrator plays a major role in the effective functioning of an educational system and that system's objective is academic achievement. However, over a period of several years, the writer noted that in the research literature, the academic achievement of students in the United States appeared to be declining in comparison with other countries.

The literature is replete with possible causes for the decline in academic achievement. Some attributing factors are the lack of financial and human resources, the socioeconomic status of the parents, the acumen of teachers, low morale, etc. Since 1979, articles dealing with Japanese education have frequently appeared in journals, popular magazines, and newspapers. These writings suggested that there are certain selective elements of the Japanese system of education that can be borrowed that may enhance the American system of education (Shimahara, 1985).

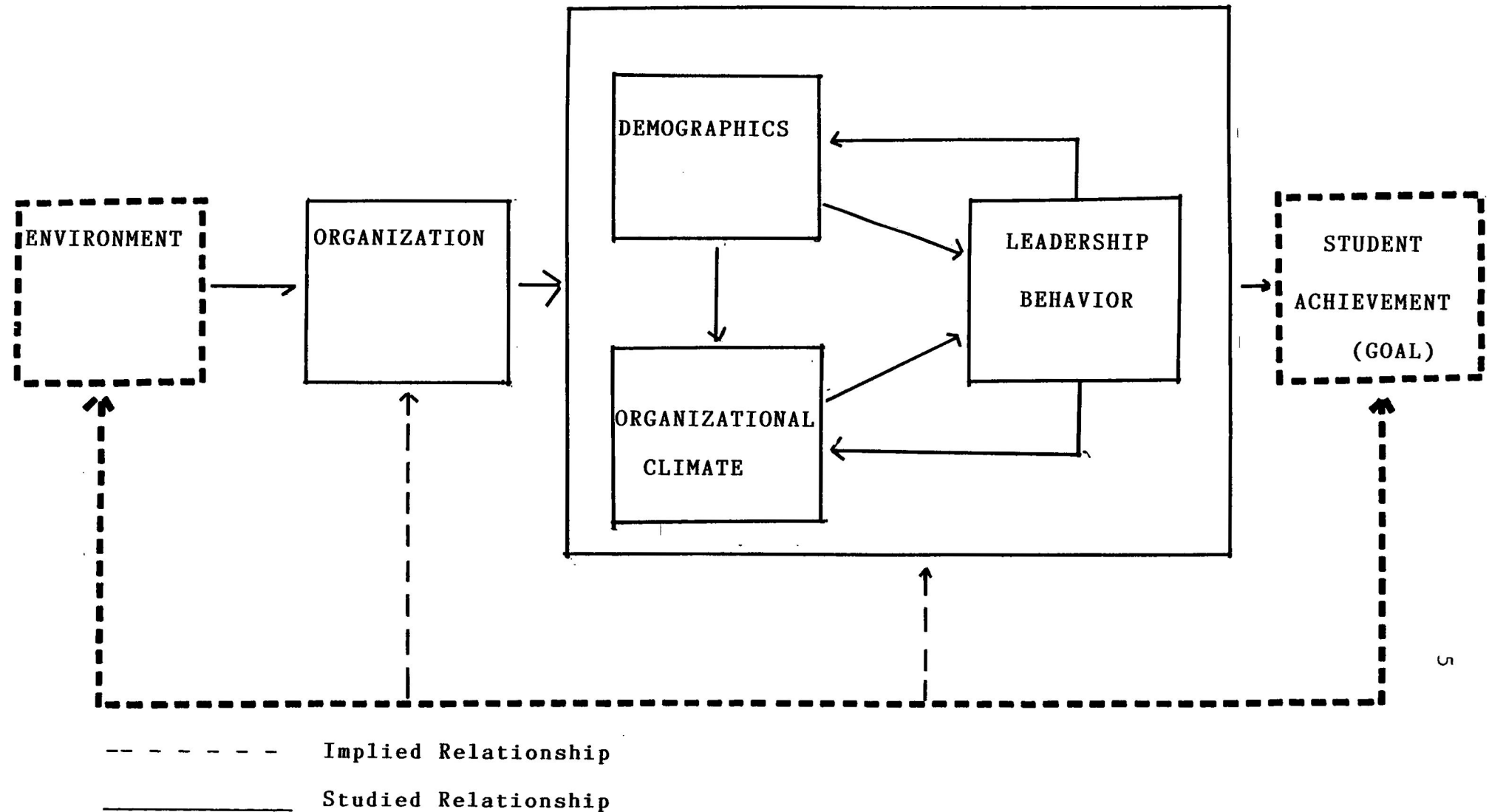
The results of this study, because of its potential benefit could add to the body of knowledge as it relates to the administrative practices of education and its affect on student achievement in the United States.

Theoretical Framework

The purpose of this study was to compare influential factors relating to the leadership behavior of Japanese and American public school administrators under the assumption that leadership behavior impacts academic achievement. The theoretical framework of study is an extension of the theory of organizational behavior performance developed by contingency theorists (Burns and Stalker 1961; Lawrence and Lorsch 1967; Lorsch and Morse 1974). The basic assumption underlying contingency theory is that organizational variables are in a complex relationship with one another and with conditions in the environment and may be terms "integrative contingency theory." This model will seek to provide an understanding of the interrelationships among major components that should be taken into account when organizational comparisons are made.

The model included two major components that impact leaders' behavior. They are: 1) demographics - the education, socioeconomic status (S.E.S.), work experience, outside activities and interests, and health and 2) the organizational climate - the internal environment or organization. Figure 1, also shows two

FIGURE 1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK - INTEGRATIVE CONTINGENCY MODEL



other components that have an implied relationship to leadership behavior. They are the external environment within which a school organization interacts in its attempt to survive within a given domain and student achievement. Student achievement, or the lack of it, in part has been posited by this researcher to be predicated by the leadership behavior of the school administrator. The arrows in Figure 1 linking the components indicate the integration of the variables and impact on leaders' behavior.

From the above discussion, the following null hypotheses were formulated.

Null Hypotheses

1. There will be no statistically significant relationship between the leadership behavior of the Japanese public school administrator and demographics.
2. There will be no statistically significant relationship between the leadership behavior of Japanese public school administrators and organizational climate.
3. There will be no statistically significant relationship between the leadership behavior of the American public school administrator and demographics.
4. There will be no statistically significant relationship between the leadership behavior of American public school administrators and organizational climate.

5. There will no statistically significant difference between the leadership behavior of Japanese public school administrators and that of the American public school administrators.
6. There will be no statistically significant difference between the organizational climate of Japanese public school administrators and the organizational climate of the American public school administrators.

Definition of Terms

The following terms were operationally defined for this study:

1. **Demographics** - the personal background of the public school administrator as measured by the Baehr Experience and Background Questionnaire. Factors included in questionnaire are:

Work Experience - long term and settled responsibility in work environment.

Educational Experience - successful school achievement of administrator.

Activities and Interest - informal and formal group participation.

Financial Status - competent handling of personal finances and accumulation of material goods.

Family Responsibility - assumption of parental and marital responsibilities.

Parental Family Adjustment - stable, happy childhood environment.

Health - better than average health through life as a whole; little or no time lost from work due to illness.

2. **Organizational Climate** - the pattern of social interaction which characterizes an organization; organizational personality as open or closed as measured by the Halpin-Croft Organizational Climate Descriptive Questionnaire (O.C.D.Q.).

Open organizational school climate - social interactions within the organization which are high in esprit thrust, and consideration; low in hindrance, disengagement, production emphasis, and aloofness.

Closed organizational school climate - social interactions which are low in thrust and esprit and high in disengagement.

3. **Public school administrator** - any person in charge of the building (i.e. the principal or director).

4. **Leadership behavior** - the interaction or performance of the leader with the organization. Leadership performance was measured by the Edwin A. Fleishman's Leader Opinion Questionnaire (L.O.Q.) in two basic dimensions --initiating structure and consideration.

Initiating Structure - leadership behavior that reflects the extent to which the leader is likely to define and structure his own role and those of subordinates toward goal achievement. The leader plays a very active role in directing group activities through planning, very active role in directing group activities through planning, communicating information, scheduling, criticizing and trying out new ideas.

Consideration - leader behavior that reflects the extent to which the leader is likely to have job relationships with subordinates characterized by mutual trust, respect for their ideas, consideration of their feelings, and a certain warmth between the leader and them.

5. **Social System** - a bounded set of interrelated parts acting together to form a single unit.
6. **Organization** - a social system consisting of individuals, groups, and structures.

The Significance of the Study

Most people think of Japan as a small country. Even the Japanese have this idea firmly in mind. And small it is if seen on a world map. Japan is an island off the east coast of Eurasia in the Pacific Ocean. Japan has about 25 million people that live in an area approximately the size of the States of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and all of New England combined except for Main (Reischauer, 1980).

Americans were once accustomed to thinking of Japan as an impressive, but rather diminutive offspring of Allied reconstruction efforts after World War II (Vogel, 1979). But the days of condescension are over. Various studies have been conducted comparing Japanese and American consumer products (Kazuo Sato, 1980) Japanese and American Management Systems (Kagono, et. al, 1980), Japanese and American Science Education Programs (Troast, 1984) and Japanese and American Teacher Salaries (Troast, 1984), etc. -- All suggesting Japanese superiority (Vogel, 1979).

Japanese education has fascinated Americans for the past ten years. Even American corporations have sought to identify the sources of Japanese industrial strength; American journalists seeking the wellspring of the competitiveness and unsurpassed productivity of Japanese industry, have nominated schooling as its

source (New York Times, 1982). However, no study was found comparing Japanese and American leadership behavior in education, an important variable affecting student achievement.

By comparing the leadership behavior of elementary school administrators in Japan and America according to the Leadership Behavior Descriptive Questionnaire, it is possible that differences in the behavior will be detected. These differences will be described and measured to determine if there is a relationship to differences in behavior.

Considering the gravity of the problem of student achievement in public schools in the U.S.A. (A Nation at Risk, 1983), and the nature and scope of Japan's successes, it is imperative that research be conducted to explore all beneficial differences that may exist between Japanese school administrators' leadership behavior and American school administrators' leadership behavior.

Because no study was found comparing the leadership behavior of public school administrators in Japan and America, a study of this nature facilitates the study of possible reformation of the current educational system in the U.S. which is the major significance of this study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

Since the intent of the study was to compare influential factors related to leadership behavior of Japanese and American School Administrators, the literature review focused on empirical research in America and in cross-cultural context relative to leadership styles, organizational climate, demographics, and other variables that have been observed, analyzed and documented by other researchers. Therefore, the literature review was completed in three major areas considered related to the study. The first area discussed is leadership. In this section, the historical development of leadership was discussed along with pertinent studies and findings related to its impact on leadership external and internal climate and its relationship to leadership behavior. The third area of review focused on demographics of the leader and its impact on leadership behavior.

Leadership

The leadership behavior of the administrator is fundamental to this study; therefore, it is appropriate to explore the topic

At the beginning of the twentieth century, great debate arose among managerial theorists on the subject of leadership. Thomas Caryle (1910) is noted for his development of the "great man" theory. He believed that nations of people progressed, as a result of efforts and accomplishments of great men of that particular time. Opponents to Caryle's Theory postulated that world events were more sociological in nature making progress and individual achievement a product of cultural determinism. They believed that forces in society shaped man's efforts and not that a great man shaped the efforts of the people. Although both theories were presented, researchers were unable to provide adequate empirical data to support their ideas. Thus, major efforts were undertaken to find a valid explanation of differences observed in leader's behavior.

With the advent of World War I, World War II and many people emerging as heroes of those wars, interest increased in the subject of leadership behavior.

Smith and Krueger (1933) through various statistical means, compiled a list of leadership traits and categorized them under a number of headings including personality, social and physical. This served to broaden the incite of researchers and the factors that bore upon the behavioral performance of leaders.

Significant work was also undertaken by Stogdill (1948) who identified leadership characteristics in six broad categories: (1) physical, (2) social background, (3) intelligence, (4) personality, (5) social, and (6) task related. Stogdill's finding served to disprove those of Smith and Krueger. He concluded, that in order to accept the trait theory as the single explanation of the theory of leadership behavior, theorists would be required to place a person with desired traits into any situation and be able to observe effective leadership behavior. Performance of many leaders showed that this was not the case. He insisted that focusing on individual traits does not show what the individual leader actually does in leadership situations. Traits identify who the leader is and not the behavioral pattern he/she will exhibit in attempting to influence subordinate action. The trait approach ignores the subordinate and his/her effect on leadership. The effectiveness of leadership to a large extent depends on the situation or environment surrounding the leadership or influence process. A particular leadership pattern may work effectively for a group of assembly line workers, but may be totally ineffective for a group of rehabilitation nurses. Interaction among the many factors of the situation must be examined before any prediction about leadership effectiveness can be made. During the 1950's, the dissatisfaction with the trait approach to leadership led

behavioral scientists to focus their attention on the actual leader's behavior, namely, what the leader does and not how he/she does it.

The foundation for the Style of Leadership approach was the belief that effective leaders utilized a particular style to lead individuals and groups to achieving certain goals resulting in high productivity. Unlike the trait theories, the behavioral approach focused on effectiveness and not the emergence of an individual as a leader (Szilagyi, 1980; Wallace, 1977).

Since the beginning of World War II, the study of leadership has taken on a whole new twist. Rather than concentrating on the personal traits of successful leaders, researchers have turned their attention to patterns of leaders' behavior called leadership styles. Attention has turned from who the leader is to how the leader actually behaves (Kreitner, 1983). One early laboratory study of leadership behavior demonstrated that followers overwhelmingly preferred managers who had a democratic style of leadership behavior, to those with an authoritarian style or a laissez-faire style of leadership behavior (Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippitt and Ralph White, 1939). Their experiments showed that authoritarian leadership behavior was efficient and effective in the short run, however, workers' morale was low. The democratic

style of leadership evidenced high production in a more favorable climate. Laissez-faire leadership produced lower production as well as low morale.

Two major research efforts were directed towards investigating the behavior approach to leadership: The Ohio State University and the University of Michigan Studies. Stogdill, Halpin, and Winer were the major investigators in the Ohio Studies (1952). The objective was to investigate the determinants of leader behavior and to determine the effects of leadership style on work groups performance and satisfaction. This study isolated two dimensions of leaders behavior: Consideration and Initiating Structure (Fleishman and Hunt, 1973). Consideration is that dimension of behavior that indicates friendships, trust, warmth, interest, and respect between leader and individuals in a work group. Initiating structure is the relationship between the leader and the subordinates while defining patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedures. Questionnaires were developed: one to measure the style of leadership as perceived by the leader (The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire) and one to measure the style of leadership as perceived by the subordinates (The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire).

At approximately the same time as the Ohio State Research Studies were being conducted, a series of leadership studies were in progress at the University of Michigan. The primary objective of the studies was to identify leadership styles of leader behavior that resulted in increased work group performance and satisfaction (Likert, 1967). These studies related leadership performance to the accomplishment of group goals. Katz and Kahn (1960) were primarily responsible for the conclusions drawn from these research efforts. They concluded that supervisors of more effective groups were better able to play a differentiated role than supervisors of less effective groups. Additionally, the better supervisors delegated authority to others more than the poorer supervisors. Conclusions reached were similar to those provided by the Ohio State Studies. One particular study involved 500 clerical workers in a large corporation (Morse and Reimer, 1956). The results of the study revealed that reproduction increased in both systems. The employee-centered group increased production by 20 percent and a 25 percent increase was noted in the job-centered group. Katz and Kahn identified similar dimensions of leadership behavior with employee orientation being synonymous with consideration and task orientation being synonymous with initiating structure. The major differences between the Michigan findings and the Ohio Studies were in the area of job-employee orientation continuum. Katz and Kahn

concluded that both dimensions resided on separate continuums, with behavior on each ranging from high to low. A leader could be high in job orientation without necessarily being low in employee orientation.

A dominant finding of the Michigan Studies was that the most productive work group tended to have leaders who were employee-centered rather than production-centered. It was also found that the most effective leaders were those who has supportive relations with their subordinates. They tended to use groups rather than individual decision making and encouraging their subordinates to set and to achieve high performance goals.

Despite the general consistency to the value of employee-centered leadership, some mixed findings emerged from the Michigan Studies (Tannenbaum, 1966). Later research by the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan shed new light on the complexities of the relationship between leadership style and productivity. One group of employees in a large life insurance company was managed in an employee-centered style and another comparable group was managed in a production-centered style. Both groups showed a significant increase in productivity. However, the employee-centered leadership style showed an increase in favorable attitude towards the supervisor and the company. In contrast, the production-centered group showed a marked decrease in favorable

attitudes towards supervision and management. Based on research conducted with 20,000 employees in a manufacturing of earth-moving equipment company, it was concluded that foremen with the best production records were both production and employee-centered (Dubin, 1972). Rensis Likert (1961) developed a classification schema designed to place leaders under one of two headings. The first was called job-centered while the second was referred to as employee-centered. The job-centered, like the production-centered leader relied on structure and is preoccupied with task accomplishment. The employee-centered leader is more concerned with group relations. Likert's basic finding was that employee-centered leaders achieve more favorable results than those who are job-centered. Additional work by Likert (1961), at the University of Michigan, related leadership performance to the accomplishment of group goals. He believed that if the leader could accomplish the task of getting the group to set high goals for itself, then the leader could work towards maintaining a high level of cohesiveness within the group and that group pressure would motivate the individual within the group to achieve those high goals. Likert developed a model to integrate the various subunits and groups that comprise the organizations which was referred to as the "linking pin" model.

According to this theory, the hierarchy consists of a series of overlapping groups. Each manager is in charge of his own group and is a member of the next higher group. The manager thus forms a linking pin between the two groups. By being a member of these overlapping groups, managers should be able to link the groups to the total organization. It is Likert's position that an effective organization is one that encouraged supervisors to focus their attention on endeavoring to develop effective work groups with high and challenging performance goals. In contrast, less effective organizations encourages supervisors to introduce a high degree of job specialization, hire people with the skills and aptitudes to perform specialized job tasks, and train these employees to do these jobs in the best and most efficient manner, closely supervise the performance of these job specialists, and, where feasible, use incentives in the form of individual piece rates.

One of the first situational models of leadership was developed by Fred Fiedler and his associates (1967). Fiedler was generally considered as the initiator of contingency thought. He moved away from the idea that there was a best way to lead, and suggested that a number of leader behavior styles might be effective or ineffective, depending on the situation. The basic foundation of the theory is the effectiveness of the leader in achieving high group performance is contingent on the need

structure of the leader and the degree to which the leader has control and influence in a particular situation. Four factors serve as the framework for Fiedler's model: The leadership style assessment, task structure, group atmosphere, and leader's position power. The first identifies the motivational aspects of the leader, and the other three factors identify the situational favorableness for the leader. According to Fiedler in his contingency model, the principal variable in investigating the leader's effectiveness is what he called the Least Preferred Coworker Score (LPC). The model postulates that the low LPC scores (unfavorable evaluation) indicates the degree to which a leader is ready to reject those with whom he cannot work. On the other hand, a high LPC score (favorable evaluation) indicates a willingness to perceive even the worst coworker as having some positive attributes. Fiedler's studies concentrated on three major factors within each situation which he thought would relate to leadership styles: (1) Leader-member relations. Leaders who are held in esteem by group members are in a more favorable situation than those who are in low esteem. (2) Task structure. Structure is defined by four criteria: Decision verifiability, goal clarity, goal path multiplicity, and solution specificity. (3) Position power of leader. The extent of power is determined by the authority the leader has over subordinates. The more power the leader has, the more favorable the situation is to her/him.

The most favorable situation would be one in which the leader was accepted by the group members, the task was highly structured, and the leader had substantial position power. In such a situation, it was reasonable to believe that subordinates were ready to act and need only to learn what the leader wished them to do in order to do it willingly and well. Whereas, in an extremely unfavorable situation, the leader was rejected by the group; the task was unstructured and vague; and the leader had low position power. Fiedler's model assumes that the leader will have the most influence and control when using a task-oriented style under favorable conditions; that is, when he is accepted, where the task is structured, and when he has strong position power. However, at the other end of the continuum, it is assumed that the leader's control and influence will be minimal because the leader is not accepted, the group's task is relatively complex and unstructured, and the leader has little position power. In that case, it may very well be that directive leadership actions were the only ones that would get any result at all; participative leadership might result in everyone deciding to do nothing. These findings suggest that each of the leadership styles can be effective in certain situations. Fiedler also suggests that the organization can change the effectiveness of the groups' performance by changing the favorableness of the situation or by changing the leader's preferred style through education and training.

Relating this approach to the Ohio State Studies, then, it appeared that the leader could afford to be high in initiating structure in a situation that was favorable, and must be high on initiating structure in an unfavorable situation in order to achieve goals. However, in situations intermediate in favorability, a leader might get better results by being high on consideration.

Further relating Fiedler's approach to the Ohio State and Michigan Studies, it may be said that the contingency theory took into account different situations or conditions of the group. It supports the task requirements in determining what style the leader should take to effect the best group performance.

Griffith (1964) described Frederick Taylor's scientific management approach as the primary design to get a more conducive situation in terms of job efficiency. Taylor advocated scientific analysis, and scientific selection, training, and development of workers to achieve job efficiency.

The antithesis of the scientific management approach was found in the roots of the Hawthorne studies of Elton Mayo and Fritz Roethlisberger at the Western Electric Company. They demonstrated that the norms of informal work groups could effect productivity positively or negatively depending upon the relationship of the informal norms to the goals of the

organization. The human relations school of thought emerged out of these findings. The significance of these findings suggest that production increased as human relations increased.

Chester Barnard, an early proponent of the move toward integration theory, espoused the idea that a cooperative effort between the organizational leader and the individual would lead to the optimum satisfaction of both groups. Others, such as Argyris,, McGregor, Getzel, and Guba, refined and revised this idea to some extent, but all generally became known as integrationists.

March and Simon, leading proponents of a subsequent movement, concentrated on defining management in terms of the decision making process. these theorists viewed the leader as bound in his efforts to achieve organizational goals, and concentrated their efforts toward understanding and perfecting the decision making process.

Katz and Kahn developed an open-system approach to explaining leader's behavior. They saw activities in the organization as interrelated both externally and internally. They felt that no decision could be reached in isolation, and would have an impact on all facets of the organization.

The open-system approach fostered the contingency theory of contemporary thought. Proponents of this viewpoint (Fiedler, Lawrence, Lorsch, and Morse) believed that the situation dictated

actions and styles of leaders, and that there was no one best way to lead or act. The degree of fit or congruence between all aspects of the environment and situation would dictate the success of the leader in attaining the organization's goals.

William Ouchi (1981) advanced Theory Z as a management style that not only yields greater productivity and profitability, but also higher degrees of worker satisfaction, company loyalty, and performance. Ouchi studies both American and Japanese companies.

He found that the basic prerequisite for the successful operation of Z management is trust, which comes from the understanding that everyone in the company shared fundamentally compatible goals.

In such a situation, all are free to make their special contributions and to advance their ideas for the solution of the problem. Ouchi also found that the typical American organization was characterized by a short-term orientation among highly specialized administrators devoted to objectivity, individual decision making, and personal responsibility. In sharp contrast, the typical Japanese business embraced a long-term orientation and encouraged its non-specialized administrators to rely on subjective judgment, participative decision making, and shared responsibility.

Organizational Environment/Climate

Tom Burns and G.M. Stalker examined some twenty (20) industrial firms in the United Kingdom. They focused on how the pattern of leadership behavior in these companies was related to certain facets of their external environment. They explored the relationship between internal management practices and the external conditions to discover the environment's effect of performance. The evidence was collected by extensive interviewing of key people in all twenty (20) companies. They rated environments on a five-interval scale, from "stable" to "least predictable." Two distinctly different sets of management methods and procedures were found. Burns and Stalker classified them as "mechanistic" and "organic." They concluded that effective organizational units operating in stable parts of the environment are more highly structured, while those in more dynamic parts of the environment are less formal.

Joan Woodward (1953) conducted a study to account for the variations in leadership behaviors. Woodward's sample consisted of one hundred firms that employed at least one hundred people, in South Essex, England. She found that the pattern of management varied according to technical differences. Woodward's study concluded that there can be no one best way of leading a business

The study provided strong leads as to how organizations must vary to be successful under different task and environmental conditions.

Lawrence and Lorsch (1969) did research which was designed to test the contingency concept. The basic assumption underlying the contingency theory was that organizational variables were found in a complex interrelationship with one another and with conditions in the environment. This study found an important relationship among external variables of certainty and diversity of the environment and internal states of differentiation and integration. The findings of the study suggested that if an organization's internal states and processes were consistent with external demands, it would be effective in dealing with the environment.

Lawrence and Lorsch's findings suggested that the major relationships that managers should think about as they design and plan organizations were those between the organizational variables and specific conditions of the environment. These findings clearly indicated that managers could no longer be concerned about the one best way to lead or act. This was the beginning of a conceptual framework with which to design organizations according to the task to be performed. The Lawrence and Lorsch study provided empirical evidence that organizations were unique in respect to their purpose and product, and that they had to fit in

the environment in which they functioned. The leader's behavior depended on the goodness of the fit of the internal variables with the environment variables, and on the proper mechanisms to integrate the uncertainty of the external environment. Individuals in the high performing laboratories could behave in ways which were consistent with their predispositions and with the uncertainty of the external environment precisely because the internal environment also fit both sets of variables. The results were high performance and the reward of strong feelings of competency.

Subsequent to the efforts of Lawrence and Lorsch, studies in selected manufacturing concerns were conducted by Lorsch and Morse (1974). Lorsch and Morse stressed that they did not feel that units needed to be high or low on any particular element of the internal environment; but rather that each unit's internal environment must achieve an appropriate fit with its members and its external environment, and that a mismatch was theoretically possible in either a high or low direction. The studies showed that in low performing units, the lack of fit led members to be less able to accomplish their work effectively. Both because of their inability to act effectively and because of feedback about low performance, members felt less competent. This reduced their incentive to perform the work required. In the lower performing unit's studies, there was no evidence that top management

understood what action might be appropriate for solving their problems. The findings clearly suggested the direction in which such action should be taken for low performing units, and that was toward the fit which existed in the comparable, more effective units.

Lorsch and Morse's contingency theory of organization had two major characteristics which distinguished it from prior approaches to understanding human behavior in organization. First, it focused on understanding the factors by which some organizations produced more effective results than others. Second, supported by experimental and field data, the argument has been advanced that there was no single best way to organize for effective results. Rather, the key to organizational effectiveness rested in matching internal organizational characteristics to the demands of the task the organization must perform in achieving its goals.

According to Burns and Stalker, (Szilagyi and Wallace, 1980) leader's behaviors were different in various industries and environments. They identified two management systems: the mechanistic and the organic. These systems were related as dependent variables to the rate of environmental change. In an organic system, the individual's loyalty appeared to be developed around the work unit to which an individual belongs. The group has a special value to satisfying the needs of employees in the organic system. This system was associated with unstable

environmental conditions. It was more flexible in coping with and adjusting to changes in technology and the conditions of the situation. They found that rigidity of structure in the mechanistic system hinders its ability to adapt to change and that this system was not appropriate in a more stable environment.

According to Thomas (1976), schools are essentially umbilical organizations. Although they are conceived and born of a central administrative bureau or office, their links with such are never completely severed. Schools are sustained by their central office, most obviously through the provision of finance, staffing, plant and equipment, but also through the "provision" of systems of rules and procedures. Thus, within any particular educational system there will be found many similarities in the formal structure as processes of its school progeny. Nevertheless, even when schools within a system reflect closely the demands of their progenitor and achieve both the appearance and the reality of a high degree of similarity, differences do exist. The atmosphere or organizational climate of schools is one such difference.

Chris Argyris and other researchers, investigating organizational climate as a theoretical construct, have focused on the congruence between individual needs and organizational demands, and the interpersonal relationships between members of the organization.

Widespread interest in organizational climate in schools was stimulated by the research of Halpin and Croft (1963). This research generated the organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (O.C.D.Q.) which measures the organizational climate of the elementary school through the self report of the perceptions of principals and teachers.

Kagono compared the management systems of the United States and Japan based on a questionnaire survey of 227 respondents out of Fortune's top 1,000 industrial firms in the United States and 255 responses out of 1,031 stock listed companies in the Tokyo Stock Exchange. The study showed that both American and Japanese firms on the average create consistent patterns that fit an organization to its environment. He found several differences in environment, objective, strategy, technology, organizational structure and process, and personal predispositions between Japanese and American firms. The American environment features diverse and remote relationships, as well as rivalry among competitors, while the Japanese environment was homogeneous and based on close relationships with related groups, along with rather cooperative relationships with competitors. The United States' organizational structure is mechanistic with high formalization and standardization, while in Japan it is organic with low formalization and standardization. Kagono also found that American firms stress decision-making by initiative, while

Japanese firms are noted for their consensus decision-making. Kagono supported the contingency theory. His findings identified the relationship of causal variables: the introduction of contingency variables such as environment, technology, market, individual personality, etc., as test variables and performance variables.

Shimizu's research explains that the top executive's ability for decision-making within the highest decision-making body as "kashikari," give and take. He concluded that the company needed strong leadership by the top executive based on this principle. Shimizu's findings showed a positive correlation between company achievement and the president-centered pattern of decision-making. The majority of firms follow decision-making based on executive consensus. However, Kagono's research noted that the strong leadership of top management has negative effects on achievement in the case of an organization facing uncertainty. The effectiveness of organizational characteristics varies according to the nature of the decision-making environment.

Hudson (1983) conducted a study of the relationship between school climate and the perceived leadership behavior of school principals. Hudson administered the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (O.C.D.Q.) to measure the teachers' perceptions of the organizational climate and The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (L.B.D.Q.) to measure the teachers'

perceptions of the principals' leadership behavior. Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to test the hypotheses. The findings of this study indicated that the teachers' perceptions of the principal's leadership does have an effect on the organizational climate of the middle school. Teachers, who have a positive perception of the principal's leadership behavior, have a positive perception of the school's organizational climate. The results also indicated that no leadership behavior is better than another. But, principals who are high in both dimensions of initiating structure and consideration have a high open climate within their school.

Demographics

Ogbukiri (1983) examined the relationship between leadership styles of principals and organizational climate of secondary schools of the IMO State of Nigeria. His results indicated that there was a relationship between the principals age, experience, educational background, and the size of the school which affects improvements of organizational climate.

Tanner (1981) found that the principal's age, race, sex experience were attributable factors in determining school effectiveness.

Al-Shakhis (1984) conducted an empirical investigation of educational leadership behavior in Saudi Arabia. His findings indicated that demographics do have an effect on the leadership behavior of administrators in Saudi, Arabia.

Ortyoyande (1984) conducted a study of the relationship between demographic factors and the leader behavior. He found a significant positive relationship existed between leadership experience and leader behavior. It was also apparent that those from small families and those who are first born become leaders more than the other siblings. There was some indication that those who come from smaller family units may become better leaders in terms of accomplishing organizational goals.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this research was to determine whether demographic and organizational climate and leadership behavior were interrelated in a sample of Japanese and American public school administrators. A correlational research design was employed.

Subjects

This research was conducted in two countries, Japan and America. The subjects were drawn from a selected population of elementary public school administrators in Tokyo, Japan and Atlanta, Georgia. Forty-five public school administrators from the Kashiwa (a suburb of Tokyo, Japan) School System and Thirty-Five public school administrators from the DeKalb County School System (a suburb of Atlanta, Georgia) were selected. There was a 78% response rate from the Japanese and a 72% response rate from the Americans.

Procedures

This researcher visited Japan to obtain a better on-site understanding, and to gather her data. Permission was obtained to conduct the study from the Ministry of Education, Kashiwa School System, Tokyo, Japan and from the Assistant Superintendent for DeKalb County Schools. The composite questionnaire was translated

into Japanese by staff members of Reitaku University, Kashiwa, Japan. A copy of the Japanese version of the questionnaire, accompanied by a cover letter and a self-address stamped envelope was distributed to all the Japanese elementary public school administrators in Kashiwa at the July, 1986 monthly administrators' meeting. A list of all elementary public school administrators in the selected DeKalb Area System was obtained and a copy of the English version of the composite questionnaire was sent to each administrator accompanied by a cover letter and a self-address stamped envelope. The composite questionnaire, both the Japanese version and the English version, consisted of Baehr Experience and Background Questionnaire, Fleishmen's Leader Opinion Questionnaire and Halpin's Organizational Climate Descriptive Questionnaire.

Description of Settings

The central education authority in Japan is the Ministry of Education. It provides guidance, advice, and financial assistance to local education authorities who are responsible for all levels of education in their own area.

There are forty-seven prefectures, and in each of the more than 3,000 municipalities, there is a board of education which serves as the local education authority. The prefectural board of education consists of three or five members appointed by the Governor with the consent of the Prefectural Assembly. The

members hold office for four years. The Municipal Board of Education consists of three or five members appointed by the Mayor with the consent of the Municipal Assembly. The members hold office for four years as in the case of the Prefectural Board.

The educational system underwent extensive reforms after World War II. The Constitution, enacted in 1946, defines the basic right and duty of the people to receive an education. This system dubbed the "6-3-3 system," was modeled after that of the United States and characterized by the negation of the elite principle in education.

All children between the age of 6 and 15 are required to attend 6-year elementary schools, 3-year lower secondary schools, and 3-year upper secondary schools. The nine-year compulsory education system is free of charge for all. Children of needy families are provided with special grants covering expenses for school lunch, school excursion, school supplies, and medical care, by the national and local governments.

A child who has completed the elementary school course is required to go on to a lower secondary school.

There are three types of upper secondary schools: full-time, part-time and correspondence.

Upper secondary school courses may be classified into several categories according to the pattern of curriculum: general, technical, commercial, domestic arts, and others,.

There are three types of institutions for higher education: universities, junior colleges and technical college.

Unlike America, the school year in Japan begins on April 1 and ends on March 31 of the following year. Vacations are granted in summer, winter and spring.

As of May, 1981, there were 25,004 elementary schools with an enrollment of 11,924,653; 10,810 lower secondary schools with an enrollment of 5,299,282; and 5,219 upper secondary schools with an enrollment of 4,682,827 in Japan.

In contrast, the Georgia Board of Education is appointed by the Governor with confirmation given by the State Senate. The Governor's appointments to the State Board of Education are based upon obtaining representation from each of the ten congressional districts. The appointed members serve a seven-year term. The authority vested in the Board is the determination of policies and procedures that define the operation of the State Board of Education, the state operated schools, and the local school system. The Board also has the authority to hire and/or fire employees of the Georgia Department of Education, only upon the recommendation of the State Superintendent.

The State Superintendent's position is acquired through the election process. The State Superintendent serves as the executive secretary to the Georgia Board of Education; serves as

the administrative officer of the Georgia Department of Education; and makes recommendations to the Georgia Board of Education regarding the employment and dismissal of personnel.

The public school administrator in Japan is selected by a committee of the Municipal Board and reports directly to that Board. These administrators have wide latitudes of freedom in day-to-day operation of their school. Parent-teacher associations are facilitators and have very little impact on school operations.

Instruments

Melany Baehr's Experience and Background Questionnaire (E.B.Q) was the instrument used to measure the demographics of the public school administrators and to test Hypothesis I and Hypothesis III. This questionnaire consists of seventy-one items, each of which asks a factual question concerning the individual's family, education, health, and work history. Each item in the questionnaire is followed by a number of possible responses. The responses vary on a scale from 10 to 1. The E.B.Q. was developed for systematic quantification of an individual's personal background history. The E.B.Q. is the result of a new factoring of items used in both the Personal Background Inventory and Female Personal Background Inventory. Because of the considerable overlap among the independently determined factors from the two source instruments and the E.B.Q., it is assumed that the validity

data from the Personal Background Inventory and the Female Personal Background Inventory is generalizable to the Experience Background Questionnaire.

The Organizational Climate Descriptive Questionnaire (O.C.D.Q.) was the instrument used to measure whether the organization's climate is open or closed. It is composed of sixty-four Likert-type items which school administrators may use to describe various aspects of social interactions in their schools. It was utilized to test Hypothesis II and Hypothesis IV. Responses are scored from five (5) (very frequently occurs) to 1 (never occurs).

The Leader Opinion Questionnaire (L.O.Q.) was used to measure two basic dimensions of leader behavior -- initiating structure and consideration. The questionnaire consists of forty items, scored on a scale of 5 to 1. The L.O.Q. was developed to maximize construct validity. The two dimensions measured by the questionnaire were developed by factor-analysis procedures, and item analysis was carried out to provide homogeneous measures of Consideration and Structure. This questionnaire can be used when an assessment of these characteristics is desired for a certain individual or group.

Data Computerization Process

Frequency counts which were recorded for each administrator

and placed in a matrix containing the following variables:

- V1. Work Experience
- V2. Educational Experience
- V3. Activities and Interests
- V4. Family Responsibility
- V5. Financial Status
- V6. Parental Family Adjustment
- V7. Health
- V8. Organizational Climate
- V9. Leadership Behavior

Data were keyed into the computer and analyses were performed using the Statistical Package For The Social Sciences (SPSS-X).

Analysis of Data

1. Pearson Product Moment Coefficients were calculated in order to determine the degree of relationship between each of the nine variables. Correlations were determined to be significant at the .05 level.
2. Factor analysis was performed in order to reduce original variables to conceptually meaningful independent factors.

3. Regression analysis was performed using leadership behavior as the dependent variable and the other eight variables as independent variables. This analysis determined the contribution of each variable to the formation of leadership behavior.
4. Analysis of variance was performed using leadership behavior as the dependent variable and country as the independent variable. The analysis of variance was used to determine if there were differences between the countries' leadership behavior.
5. Analysis of variance was performed using organizational climate as the dependent variable and country as the independent variable to determine if there were differences between the countries' organizational climate.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Analysis of the data which were collected from the administrators in both countries are contained in this chapter.

A comparative analysis of the age and the school achievement level of the public school administrators who participated in the study by country, (Table 4.1) showed that 94 percent of the Japanese public school administrators were 50 years old or older, whereas only 16 percent of the American public school administrators fell in this category. It also showed that none of the Japanese public school administrators had gone to graduate, whereas 100 percent of the Americans had gone to graduate school

Additional data were analyzed in relation to the hypotheses. The data is presented in the order of the hypotheses. Additional analysis will be given as appropriate.

Null Hypothesis I

There is no statistically significant relationship between the leadership behavior of the Japanese public school administrators and demographics.

The first statistical step was to determine if there was a relationship between the leadership behavior of Japanese public school administrators and demographics. The Baehr's Experience and Background Questionnaire was the instrument utilized to gather data for this step.

Table 4.1

PERCENTAGE COMPARISON OF AGE AND SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT

LEVEL OF JAPANESE AND AMERICAN PUBLIC

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

	JAPANESE	AMERICAN
	%	%
AGE OF ADMINISTRATORS		
50 Years Old or Older	.94	.16
40-49 Years Old	.06	.56
30-39 Years Old	.00	.28
SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT		
Graduate School	.00	1.00
College	.40	1.00
One to Three Years of College	.40	.00
Special Teacher's Training	.20	.00

The correlation matrix (Table 4.2) reveals correlations which are significant at the .05 level. Each of these correlations discussed in terms of their relationship to the hypothesis.

Leadership behavior was correlated insignificantly with Financial Status .04738, Education .07489, Parental Family Adjustment .06841, Outside Activities and Interest .15474, and Work Experience .17376. Health .27174 was significantly correlated with leadership behavior. However, Family Information $-.37372$ negatively correlated significantly to leadership behavior. This means that there is an inverse relationship between leadership behavior and family responsibility. Those public school administrators in Japan who place strong emphasis on family responsibility seem to carry this behavior to the work environment. They seem to place high value on organizational structure, commitment and superior-subordinate relationships. The Japanese tend to be more directive or autocratic in their approach to management. In Japan when the acceptance of marital and parental responsibility for support of the family is high, then the leadership behavior of the administrator tends to be more structured. When the acceptance of family responsibility is low, then the leadership behavior of the administrator tends to be more considerate. The Japanese public school administrators tend to be more eclectic in their approach to management. When other variables are compared to each other, other correlations are

Table 4.2

JAPANESE PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

CORRELATION MATRIX

n=35

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5
V1Work Exp	1.00000				
V2Edu Exp	.13734	1.00000			
V3Act&Int	.18577	.53138	1.00000		
V4FamRes	.19331	.01598	-.23936	1.00000	
V5FinSta	.15671	.15956	-.07430	.32416	1.00000
V6Parfam	-.15437	-.13292	-.06104	-.28718	-.34600
V7Health	-.19724	-.07315	.16689	-.28529	-.00166
V8OCDQ	.01289	-.25691	-.17444	.03776	.07150
V9LOQ	.17376	.07489	.15474	-.37372	.04738

V1 - Work Experience
 V2 - Educational Experience
 V3 - Activities and Interest
 V4 - Family Responsibility
 V5 - Financial Status
 V6 - Parental Family
 V7 - Health
 V8 - Organizational Climate
 V9 - Leadership Behavior

*Critical Value at .05 Level of Significance = .2746

Table 4.2 (CONTINUED)

JAPANESE PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

CORRELATION MATRIX

n=35

	V6	V7	V8	V9
V6Parfam	1.00000			
V7Health	.23692	1.00000		
V8OCDQ	.03445	-.03288	1.00000	
V9LOQ	.06841	.27174	.28125	1.00000

V6 - Parental Family
 V7 - Health
 V8 - Organizational Climate
 V9 - Leadership Behavior

*Critical Value at .05 Level of Significance = .2746

noted. Activities and Interest correlated significantly with educational experience .53138. In Japan, when the administrator's own personal academic achievement is high, the administrator's participation in formal and informal group activities is high. Education tends to broaden one's scope. Consequently, involvement in outside activities would probably increase. There is a significant correlation between financial status and family responsibility (.32416), which seem to suggest that administrators who assume marital and parental responsibility are financially secure. On the other hand, parental family adjustment negatively correlated significantly with financial status $-.35600$. Those administrators who experience unstable childhood environments tend to emphasize the importance of financial stability.

Null Hypothesis II

There is no statistically significant relationship between the leadership behavior of Japanese public school administrators and organizational climate.

The second statistical step was to determine if there was a relationship between leadership of Japanese public school administrators and the organizational climate. The correlation (Table 4.2) between organizational climate and the behavior of the administrators was significant (.28125). This finding is consistent with the literature.

Null Hypotheses III

There is no statistically significant relationship between the leadership behavior of American public school administrators and demographics.

The third statistical step was to determine if there was a relationship between the leadership behavior of American public school administrators and demographics. The Baehr's Experience and Background Questionnaire was the instrument utilized to gather data for this step.

The correlation matrix (Table 4.3) revealed that American public school administrators leadership behavior insignificantly correlated to health .04289, family responsibility .14135 and significantly correlated to work experience .36759. This finding suggests that those administrators who tend to have positive work experiences tend also to be more considerate. There was a significant correlation between leadership behavior and educational experience .54143 and financial status .40344. Education tends to positively affect cognitive skills, self-confidence, and sensitivity to others, consequently affecting a more positive leadership behavior. This finding seems to suggest that those administrators who have attained a high level of personal academic achievement have positive work experiences. They are more considerate in their approach to management. In addition, those same administrators have reached a level of

Table 4.3
 AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS
 CORRELATION MATRIX
 n=25

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5
V1Work Exp	1.00000				
V2Edu Exp	.34296	1.00000			
V3Act&Int	.19053	.05991	1.00000		
V4FamRes	.20014	.03675	.44041	1.00000	
V5FinSta	.15185	.27198	.23463	.31169	1.00000
V6Parfam	.19414	-.29110	-.21316	-.25994	.20199
V7Health	.04673	.28287	.10914	-.18203	-.49242
V8OCDQ	-.00449	-.44896	.20739	-.16587	-.24625
V9LOQ	.36759	.54143	-.07751	.14135	.40344

V1 - Work Experience
 V2 - Educational Experience
 V3 - Activities and Interest
 V4 - Family Responsibility
 V5 - Financial Status
 V6 - Parental Family
 V7 - Health
 V8 - Organizational Climate
 V9 - Leadership Behavior

*Critical Value at .05 Level of Significance = .3233

Table 4.3 (CONTINUED)

AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS
 CORRELATION MATRIX
 n=25

	V6	V7	V8	V9
V6Parfam	1.00000			
V7Health	-.37931	1.00000		
V8OCDQ	.06213	-.00435	1.00000	
V9LOQ	-.15343	.04289	-.23945	1.00000

V6 - Parental Family
 V7 - Health
 V8 - Organizational Climate
 V9 - Leadership Behavior

*Critical Value at .05 Level of Significance = .3233

financial security. Thus, supporting the literature, that as education and work experiences increase, the more considerate the leadership behavior. Table 4.3 further revealed negative insignificant correlations between parental family adjusting $-.15343$, activities and interest $-.07751$ and leadership behavior. When other variables are compared to each other, other correlations are noted. Education negatively correlated significantly to organizational climate $-.44896$ suggesting that when education is high, organizational climate is low. This finding tends to suggest that the higher the educational level of the American public school administrator, the more confident the administrator becomes. He apparently perceives himself to be an expert. Consequently, he tends seldom to acquiesce to opinions of subordinates, thus creating a closed organizational climate. Financial status correlated insignificantly to activities and interest $.23463$, family responsibility $.31169$, and work experience $.15186$. Family responsibility correlated significantly to outside activities and interest $.44041$. It appears that good family relations promotes participation in outside activities and interest. Health negatively correlated significantly to financial status $-.49242$ and parental family adjustment $-.38931$. As parental influence and financial status increases, health decreases. This suggests that in America, public school administrators with good health, tend to be outgoing and more

involved, thereby, having little interaction and association with family members. However, if the administrator's health is poor, there appears to be a high tolerance for commitment in a structured environment that tends to provide financial stability. Additionally, because of poor health, it appears that parental family interaction was more positive. There was also an insignificant negative correlation between family responsibility-.25994 and outside activities and interest. Outside activities and interest correlated insignificantly to work experience .19053.

Null Hypothesis IV

There is no statistically significant relationship between the leadership behavior of American public school and organizational climate.

In the fourth statistical step, the correlation matrix (Table 4.3) revealed that Organizational Climate insignificantly correlated negatively to leadership behavior $-.23945$. This finding appears to show that the more open the climate in American schools, the more structured the leadership behavior. Conversely, the more closed the organizational climate, the more considerate the leadership behavior, which appears to be contrary to the effective school literature. The effective school literature seems to suggest that the more open the climate of the school, the more considerate the leadership behavior.

Null Hypothesis V

There is no statistically significant difference between the leadership behavior of Japanese public school administrators and that of the American public school administrators.

The fifth statistical step was to determine if there was a difference between the leadership behavior of Japanese public school administrators and that of the American public school administrators. In order to test hypothesis V, the one-way analysis of variance was employed. The summary is displayed in Table 4.4 which shows the F-ratio of 13.813 which is highly significant at the .05 level of significance, therefore, the Null Hypothesis V is rejected. The mean score of 118.85 for Japan and 125.34 for America appear to suggest that Japanese public school administrators leadership behavior is more structured when compared to the American public school administrators.

This finding would tend to suggest pervasive differences that are embedded in the traditional culture of the two countries. America prides itself in its freedoms and individual rights, thus manifesting in a more considerate leadership behavior. Similarly, the Japanese, seem to place in inordinate emphasis on the family, paternalism, national responsibility and pride, thus manifesting itself in a more structures leadership behavior. Therefore, both American and Japanese public school administrators' leadership behavior are consistent to their cultural environments.

Table 4.4

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARY FOR LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR AND COUNTRY

COUNTRY	N	X	SV	DF	SS	MS	F	SF
JAPAN	35	118.85	EXPLAINED	1	584.91	584.91	13.81	.000
AMERICA	25	125.34	RESIDUAL	56	2371.36	42.35		
			TOTAL	57	2956.27			

Null Hypothesis VI

There if no statistically significant difference between the organizational climate of Japanese public school administrators and that of the American public school administrators.

The sixth statistical step was to determine if there was a difference between the organizational climate of Japanese public school administrators and that of the American public school administrators. In order to test Hypothesis VI, the one-way analysis of variance was employed. The summary is displayed in Table 4.5 which shows the F-ratio of 18.330 which is highly significant at the .05 level of significance, therefore, the Null Hypothesis VI is rejected. The mean scores of 176.07 for Japan and 188.64 for America appear to suggest that Japanese public school administrators' organizational climate is more closed when compared to the more open American public school administrators' organization climate. This finding again suggests that the organizational climates of the two countries are consistent to their cultural environments.

Table 4.5

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARY FOR ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE
AND COUNTRY

COUNTRY	N	X	SV	DF	SS	MS	F	SF
JAPAN	35	176.07	EXPLAINED	1	1791.73	1791.73	18.33	.000
AMERICA	25	188.64	RESIDUAL	56	4789.68	97.75		
TOTAL				57	6581.41			

RESULTS OF FACTOR ANALYSIS

Factor analysis is a multivariate statistical procedure that is designed to explain the relationships between several difficult to interpret correlated variables in terms of a few conceptually meaningful, relatively independent factors. Variables are loaded, or grouped, into factors based on ordered relationships. In other words, factor loadings describe the correlations between the factors emerging from a factor analysis and the original variables in the construction of the factors. The loadings associated with a given factor analytic solution are represented by a matrix, where the numbers in each column are the correlations of a specific factor with the original variables. The primary use of this matrix is to pinpoint those variables that are "highly loaded" (highly correlated) with a given factor, so that the factor can conceptually be interpreted.

Hypotheses I and II

The present study began with nine variables (represented in Table 4.6) hypothesized to be highly correlated.

The results of the factor analysis revealed that the original variables could be grouped into four relatively independent factors. The variables with the highest correlation coefficient within each factor are those that are most highly correlated. Conceptually, these variables were interpreted as representation

Table 4.6

JAPANESE PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

FACTOR ANALYSIS

n=35

	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3	FACTOR 4
V1Work Exp	.28411	.16120	.37285	-.64915*
V2Edu Exp	.80631*	.19049	-.06779	-.07110
V3Act&Int	.84370*	-.10690	.12671	.02530
V4FamRes	-.23440	.60019*	-.30720	-.37965
V5FinSta	.01810	.86926*	-.14674	.13116
V6Parfam	-.13951	-.66674*	.05950	.20926
V7Health	.10868	-.05652	.23944	.81496*
V8OCDQ	-.47716	.05838	.64278*	-.12938
V9LOQ	.17310	-.07442	.84952*	.16446

- V1 - Work Experience
 V2 - Educational Experience
 V3 - Activities and Interest
 V4 - Family Responsibility
 V5 - Financial Status
 V6 - Parental Family
 V7 - Health
 V8 - Organizational Climate
 V9 - Leadership Behavior

* Most Highly Loaded Variables

of one independent factor.

In Factor 1, the most highly loaded variables included:

- (a) Variable 2, Educational Experience
- (b) Variable 3, Activities and Interest

Factor 1 revealed that Japanese administrators, having a liking for and success in the school environment, also have a liking for and participation in formal and informal group activities. This seems to support Fiedler's Contingency model that certain types of individuals seek to accomplish tasks as well as close interpersonal relationships. Conceptually Factor 1 represents "Group Participation and School Achievement." In Japan, formal education is important for providing the opportunity for social mobility. The Japanese system places weight on educational achievement in selection of public school administrators.

In Factor 2, the most highly loaded variables included:

- (a) Variable 4, Family Responsibility
- (b) Variable 6, Parental Family Adjustment
- (c) Variable 5, Financial Status

The basic theoretical framework, presented in Chapter I, upon which the study was based, hypothesized that leadership behavior is influenced by the demographics of the leader. The factors which are highly loaded in Factor 2 clearly revealed that there is a strong relationship between the family, childhood environment

and financial status. Conceptually, Factor 2 represented a measure of "Socioeconomic Status." This seems to confirm the Social Research Council Literature, (1980) that Japanese leadership behavior is influenced by the cultural and historical continuities of Japanese social organization. Especially pertinent is the way individuals within the Japanese families are socialized to fit into hierarchically structured social networks within which they spend their later lives. Reasons are found also in the Japanese paternalism -- both in the way one plays the leadership role or the subordinate role. Also cultural forms of secondary socialization in occupational roles follow the primary socialization occurring within the family. In the traditional Japanese social system, a youth is usually introduced into a network of occupational expectations around the time of puberty. The youth is trained to develop a future time orientation. Therefore, in this study, the relationship was considered to be valid.

In Factor 3, the most highly loaded variables included:

- (a) Variable 8, Organizational Climate
- (b) Variable 9, Leadership Behavior

Factor established a strong relationship between two variables hypothesized to be related. Included in the theoretical framework of this study is that leadership behavior is influenced by organizational climate. The Japanese organizational climate is

homogeneous and is based on close relationships within the group. This finding is consistent with the literature that the organizational climate provided reasonable valid measures of important aspects of the administrators' leadership in perspective of interaction with subordinates. Thus, conceptually, Factor 3 measures "leadership."

In Factor 4, the most highly loaded variables were Work Experience and Health. This finding consistent with literature.

Hypotheses III and IV

The present study began with nine variables (represented in Table 4.7) hypothesized to be highly correlated. The results of the factor analysis revealed that the original variables could be grouped into four relatively independent factors. The variables with the highest correlation coefficient within each factor are those that are most highly correlated. Conceptually, these variables were interpreted as representation of one independent factor.

In Factor 1, the most highly loaded variables included:

- (a) Variable 2, Educational Experience
- (b) Variable 8, Organizational Climate
- (c) Variable 9, Leadership Behavior

Factor 1 established a strong relationship between three variables that are vital for effectiveness. According to Lewin (Iowa Studies, 1944), Education tends to sensitize the individual

Table 4.7

AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

FACTOR ANALYSIS

n=25

	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3	FACTOR 4
V1Work Exp	.14496	.03359	.11468	.88604*
V2Edu Exp	.79287*	-.25476	.06587	.31850
V3Act&Int	-.20745	-.09921	.82415*	.24425
V4FamRes	.15996	.20320	.81729*	-.03794
V5FinSta	.41540	.69057*	.33067	.17070
V6Parfam	-.29315	.62550*	-.46468	.34167
V7Health	.08356	-.88983*	-.04697	.13170
V8OCDQ	-.77699*	-.12731	.06739	.26298
V9LOQ	.69726*	.03748	.04345	.41530

- V1 - Work Experience
 V2 - Educational Experience
 V3 - Activities and Interest
 V4 - Family Responsibility
 V5 - Financial Status
 V6 - Parental Family
 V7 - Health
 V8 - Organizational Climate
 V9 - Leadership Behavior

*Most Highly Loaded Variables

within the group to be more aware of himself and of his impact on others, thus, unfreezing the climate. The leadership behavior of the administrator is perhaps the most powerful leverage point in the entire system to influence the organizational climate. An open climate's warmth and support encourages achievement by both teachers and students. Conceptually, Factor 1 represents "Organizational Climate."

In Factor 2, the most highly loaded variables included:

- (a) Variable 5, Financial Status
- (b) Variable 6, Parental Family Adjustment
- (c) Variable 7, Health

The variables which are highly loaded in Factor 2 revealed that there is a definite relationship between the variables that are commonly associated with the socioeconomic status of administrators and leadership behavior. Conceptually, Factor 2 represents a measure of "Socioeconomic Status." This finding supports Stogdill's contention that the socioeconomic position of the leader was one of five personal factors associated with leadership behavior.

In Factor 3, the most highly loaded variables included:

- (a) Variable 3, Activities and Interest
- (b) Variable 4, Family Responsibility

This finding suggests that American public school administrators have significant family involvement and this is strongly correlated to social activities which is seen to impact on their behavior as an administrator. Conceptually, Factor 3 represents a measure of "Involvement."

In Factor 4, the only highly loaded variable was Work Experience. Because of the similarities of the administrators roles, work experience was not expected to be a significant factor in the study.

RESULTS OF REGRESSION ANALYSIS

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR A DEPENDENT VARIABLE

Regression analysis was performed using leadership behavior as the dependent variable against the other eight variables listed in Table 4.8. The purpose of this analysis was to determine the amount of influence which each variable contributed to the formation of leadership behavior. The regression analysis was employed because correlation is not necessarily causation. In other words, even though high correlations exist between leadership behavior and other variables, those variables do not necessarily cause leadership behavior to be either considerate or structured.

Table 4.8 shows that in Japan, family responsibility contributes most to leadership behavior with a beta of $-.42073$. The next most significant contribution is made by Organizational Climate $.32872$, and finally by Work Experience $.27182$. The other variables in the regression equation contribute very little to the formation of leadership behavior. However, only 17% of the variance in leadership behavior are determined by Family Responsibility, Organizational Climate and Work Experience. The other 83% is determined by the interaction of the other variables in the equation plus differences in the administrators themselves. In essence, this analysis states that leadership behavior in Japan

$$= \text{Family Responsibility} + \text{Organizational Climate} + \text{Work}$$

Table 4.8

MULTIPLE REGRESSION USING JAPANESE PUBLIC SCHOOL
ADMINISTRATORS' LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR
AS DEPENDENT VARIABLE WITH SELECTED INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

n=35

VARIABLE	BETA	T	SIG T

FAMRES	-.42073	-2.326	.0281
EDUEXP	.16443	.826	.4163
WORKEXP	.27182	1.614	.1185
OCDQ	.32872	2.015	.0543
HEALTH	.24779	1.413	.1695
PARFAM	-.03686	-.209	.8349
FINSTA	.07427	.411	.6846
ACT&INT	-.06458	-.314	.3867
MULTIPLE R		.60628	
R SQUARE		.36758	
ADJUSTED R SQUARE		.17298	

Experience. Those leaders who are high in leadership behavior are those who have had positive work experiences, are in open organizational climates and have assumed family responsibility.

Table 4.9 shows that in America, financial status contributes most to leadership behavior with a beta of .54068. The next most significant contribution is made by Activities and Interest $-.40501$, and finally by Work Experience $.31464$. The other variables in the regression equation contribute very little to the formation of leadership behavior. This analysis states that leadership behavior in America = Financial Status + Activities and Interest + Work Experience. The Adjusted r squared concludes that approximately 26% of the variance in leadership behavior are determined by financial status, activities and interest and work experience. The other 74% is determined by the interaction of the other variables in the equation plus differences in the administrators themselves.

Table 4.9

MULTIPLE REGRESSION USING AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOL
ADMINISTRATORS' LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR
AS DEPENDENT VARIABLE WITH SELECTED INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

n=25

VARIABLE	BETA	T	SIG T
EDUEXP	.22809	.805	.4336
FAMRES	.06341	.257	.3009
HEALTH	.18625	.757	.4785
WORKEXP	.31464	1.380	.1878
ACT&INT	-.40501	-1.733	.1037
OCDQ	.10919	.475	.6415
PARFAM	-.26331	-1.049	.3107
FINSTA	.54067	1.996	.0644
MULTIPLE R		.72103	
R SQUARE		.51988	
ADJUSTED R SQUARE		.26382	

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This study was primarily designed to determine the relationship between leadership behavior, demographics, and organizational climate of Japanese and American Public School Administrators. Because organizational climate and demographics are cited in the literature as influencing leadership behavior, it was felt by the researcher that a direct correlation existed between them, thus having an ultimate effect on student academic achievement. Academic achievement was not measured but inferred in this research effort. Chapter II cites pertinent studies which reveal effective leadership behavior, organizational climates, and demographics. Within Chapter II, there was no attempt to be exhaustive in reviewing the literature on leadership, organizational climate and demographics. Instead the researcher specifically identified those studies that link organizational climate and demographics to leadership behavior. However, no study was found comparing leadership behavior of Japanese and American public school administrators to demographics and organizational climate, which is the primary focus of this study.

The theoretical framework presented in Chapter I proposed the

following null hypotheses:

1. There will be no statistically significant relationship between the leadership behavior of the Japanese public school administrator and demographics.
2. There will be no statistically significant relationship between the leadership of Japanese public school administrators and organizational climate.
3. There will be no statistically significant relationship between the leadership behavior of the American public school administrator and demographics.
4. There will be no statistically significant relationship between the leadership behavior of American public school administrators and organizational climate.
5. There will be not statistically significant difference between the leadership behavior of Japanese public school administrators and that of American public school administrators.
6. There will be no statistically significant difference between the organizational climate of Japanese public school administrators and that of American public school administrators.

Conclusions

The evidence of Chapter IV would lead to conclusions in this chapter in order of the appearance of evidence in that chapter.

1. Japanese public school administrator leadership behavior was related to organizational climate, health, and family responsibility. Those administrators who had more open organizational climates and experienced good health, tended to be more considerate in their leadership behavior. However, those administrators who appear to assume family responsibility tended to be more paternal, controlled, or closed and their leadership behavior more structured.
2. Japanese public school administrators whose personal academic achievement appeared to be low, leadership behavior appeared to be more considerate and their organizational climate seem more opened.
3. Japanese public school administrator financial status was inversely related to parental family adjustment, suggesting that administrators experiencing an unstable childhood, had financial status that tended to be higher than those experiencing a stable childhood. However, it appears that as family responsibility increases, financial status increases.
4. In Japan, it appears that the more stable the administrator's childhood environment, the less likely he will assume family responsibility.

5. Japanese public school administrator leadership behavior correlated significantly with family responsibility, health and organizational climate. However, the results of regression analysis revealed that the strongest determinants of leadership behavior are family responsibility and organizational climate.
6. In America, as the public school administrator's education and financial status increases, work experiences and outside activities and interest increase. Similarly, as education, financial status increase, leadership behavior becomes more considerate. However, the organizational climate appears to become more closed as education and financial status increase. In this society, the higher the level of education attainment, the greater the financial rewards and demand for participation in outside activities. Because of this involvement and time constraints, the American public school administrator may deem it necessary to have a more structured work environment.
7. American public school administrators who appear to have had unhappy childhoods, tend to achieve more academically, have more outside activities and interest, and assume more family responsibility. Additionally, leadership behavior is more considerate.

8. American public school administrator leadership behavior correlated significantly with work experience, educational experience, financial status, and organizational climate, status and organizational climate. However, the results of the regression analysis revealed that none of the variables were significant at the .05 level of significance.
9. The organizational climate of Japan appeared to be more closed in comparison to the American organizational climate which appeared to be more opened.
10. The leadership behavior of the Japanese public school administrators appeared to be more structured in comparison to the American public school administrators' leadership behavior which seemed to be more considerate.
11. Differences between Japanese and American organizational climates and leadership behavior may be found in the cultural and historical continuities of Japanese and American social organizations. Both Japanese and American public school administrators' leadership behavior are consistent to their cultural values.

Summary of Limitations

1. The sample involved only 35 Japanese public school administrators and 25 American public school administrators.

2. Public school administrators responses only were utilized in assessing leadership behavior and organizational climate.
3. The instruments utilized in this study were American designed instruments.

Recommendations

The conclusions drawn from this study present significant implications for education administration and supervision as well as for further research. The following recommendation are made:

1. That administrator training programs provide courses specifically related to organizational climate.
2. That additional research be undertaken using the design of the present study, but increase the sample size.
3. That additional research be undertaken utilizing teachers and students in the population.
4. That additional research be undertaken to investigate American public school administrators' leadership behavior and organizational climate.

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APPENDIX A – INSTRUMENTS

Name

Occupation

Company

Date

Directions

The questions in this booklet are about your general background and experience. Next to each question is a set of possible answers. Simply choose the answer that best applies to you.

First, write in the facts asked for at the top of this page. Then answer the questions inside the booklet. Simply put a heavy check mark (✓) in front of the answer that best applies to you.

Example

0. What is your present work situation?

- a. ☐ Unemployed, never worked
- b. ☒ Unemployed, previously employed
- c. ☐ Employed
- d. ☐ Recently discharged from military service



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1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

WARNING: All rights reserved. No part of this booklet may be reproduced in any form or by any electronic or mechanical means including information storage and retrieval systems, without express written permission.

1. Have most of your jobs been:
- a. _____ Full-time
 - b. _____ Part-time
 - c. _____ Have never held a job before

If you have never held a full-time job before, skip to question 15.

2. Have your jobs been:
- a. _____ Much the same kind of work
 - b. _____ Somewhat different kinds of work
 - c. _____ Very different kinds of work
3. How many years in all have you worked?
- a. _____ Less than 2 years
 - b. _____ 2-4 years
 - c. _____ 5-7 years
 - d. _____ 8-10 years
 - e. _____ 11-13 years
 - f. _____ 14 years or more
4. How many different companies or organizations have you worked for?
- a. _____ 1-2
 - b. _____ 3-4
 - c. _____ 5-6
 - d. _____ 7 or more
5. What is the longest time you have worked for any one company or organization?
- a. _____ Less than 1 year
 - b. _____ 1-2 years
 - c. _____ 3-4 years
 - d. _____ 5-7 years
 - e. _____ 8-10 years
 - f. _____ 11-13 years
 - g. _____ 14 years or more
6. In how many of your past jobs did you have to deal regularly with the public?
- a. _____ None
 - b. _____ 1
 - c. _____ 2
 - d. _____ 3
 - e. _____ 4 or more
7. In how many of your past jobs did you supervise the work of other people?
- a. _____ None
 - b. _____ 1
 - c. _____ 2
 - d. _____ 3
 - e. _____ 4 or more
8. In how many of your past jobs did you get raises for good work?
(Do *not* include automatic or union-negotiated raises.)
- a. _____ None
 - b. _____ 1
 - c. _____ 2
 - d. _____ 3
 - e. _____ 4 or more
9. For how many years of your working life has your job been your only source of money?
- a. _____ None
 - b. _____ Less than 2 years
 - c. _____ 2-4 years
 - d. _____ 5-7 years
 - e. _____ 8-10 years
 - f. _____ 11-13 years
 - g. _____ 14 years or more

10. How old were you when you started supporting yourself completely with a job?
 - a. _____ Do not yet support myself completely
 - b. _____ Less than 17 years
 - c. _____ 17-18 years
 - d. _____ 19-20 years
 - e. _____ 21-22 years
 - f. _____ 23 years or more
11. Did you ever accept a job where the hourly wage was less than on the job you had before that?
 - a. _____ Yes
 - b. _____ No
12. Do you think that the period of your peak performance is:
 - a. _____ Sometime in the future
 - b. _____ About now
 - c. _____ Sometime in the past
 - d. _____ No particular peak period
13. Since you left school, on the average, how often have you been absent from work?
 - a. _____ One or more days per week
 - b. _____ One to three days per month
 - c. _____ Less than once a month
 - d. _____ Two or three days per year
 - e. _____ Never
14. Since you left school, on the average, how often have you been late to work by more than 10 minutes?
 - a. _____ One or more days per week
 - b. _____ One to three days per month
 - c. _____ Less than once a month
 - d. _____ Two or three days per year
 - e. _____ Never
15. When you were in school, how much part-time work did you do?
 - a. _____ Worked most of your hours out of school
 - b. _____ Worked regularly out of school, but saved plenty of time for study and recreation
 - c. _____ Worked only occasionally out of school
 - d. _____ Almost never worked when out of school
16. Would your choice of an ideal job be one which:
 - a. _____ Allowed a great amount of interaction with other people
 - b. _____ Would require working with a small group
 - c. _____ Would allow you to work closely with one other person
 - d. _____ Would allow you to work by yourself
17. Regarding responsibility in your job, would you:
 - a. _____ Like to have a good deal of responsibility
 - b. _____ Like to have some responsibility but still have someone responsible over you
 - c. _____ Prefer a minimum of responsibility
 - d. _____ Rather not have any responsibility
18. How fast do you usually work?
 - a. _____ Much faster than most people
 - b. _____ Somewhat faster than most people
 - c. _____ At about the same pace as most people
 - d. _____ Somewhat slower than most people
 - e. _____ Much slower than most people
 - f. _____ Unable to tell

19. How far did you go in school?

- a. _____ Less than 8 years
- b. _____ Completed 8th grade
- c. _____ 9-11 years
- d. _____ Graduated from high school
- e. _____ Special training
(e.g., nursing, trade, secretarial)
- f. _____ 1-3 years college
- g. _____ College degree
- h. _____ Graduate school

20. Would you say that your elementary school years were:

- a. _____ Successful
- b. _____ Average
- c. _____ Unsuccessful

If you did not go to high school, skip to question 28.

21. How difficult was high school work for you?

- a. _____ Quite easy
- b. _____ Fairly easy
- c. _____ Neither easy nor hard
- d. _____ Fairly hard
- e. _____ Quite hard

22. During your past schooling, how would you have fared scholastically if you had done the very best you could?

- a. _____ Upper 10%
- b. _____ Upper 25%
- c. _____ Upper 50%
- d. _____ Lower 50%
- e. _____ Don't know

23. How many subjects did you like very much in high school?

- a. _____ None
- b. _____ 1
- c. _____ 2
- d. _____ 3
- e. _____ 4
- f. _____ 5 or more

24. While you were in high school, where did your grades rank you in your class?

- a. _____ Upper 10%
- b. _____ Upper 25%
- c. _____ Upper 50%
- d. _____ Lower 50%
- e. _____ Don't know

Activities and Interests

25. While you were in high school, in how many activities did you take part?
(e.g., student government, athletic team)

- a. _____ None
- b. _____ 1
- c. _____ 2-3
- d. _____ 4-5
- e. _____ 6-7
- f. _____ 8 or more

26. During your last two years in high school, about how many hours a week did you spend in athletics?
(Both in and out of school)

- a. _____ None
- b. _____ 1-4
- c. _____ 5-9
- d. _____ 10 or more

27. While you were in high school, how many "outside" interests did you have?
(e.g., a hobby, athletics)

- a. _____ None
- b. _____ 1
- c. _____ 2
- d. _____ 3
- e. _____ 4
- f. _____ 5 or more

28. In how many organizations have you been very active during the last three years?
(e.g., a church group, neighborhood group, bowling team)

- a. _____ None
- b. _____ 1
- c. _____ 2
- d. _____ 3
- e. _____ 4 or more

29. In the last five years, how many official positions have you held in organizations?
(e.g., chairman, secretary)

- a. _____ None
- b. _____ 1
- c. _____ 2
- d. _____ 3
- e. _____ 4 or more

Family Information

30. How many children do you now have?
(Include stepchildren)

- a. _____ None
- b. _____ 1
- c. _____ 2
- d. _____ 3
- e. _____ 4
- f. _____ 5 or more

If you have no children, skip to question 34.

31. How old were you when your first child was born?

- a. _____ Under 18 years
- b. _____ 18-21 years
- c. _____ 22-24 years
- d. _____ 25-27 years
- e. _____ 28-30 years
- f. _____ 31 years or over

32. How many of your children are living at home?

- a. _____ None
- b. _____ 1
- c. _____ 2
- d. _____ 3
- e. _____ 4
- f. _____ 5 or more

33. How far would you like to be able to send your children in school?

- a. _____ Grammar school
- b. _____ High school
- c. _____ Special training (e.g., vocational school)
- d. _____ Junior college
- e. _____ College
- f. _____ Graduate school
- g. _____ Undecided

In this section, "your family" means:

—if you are married: yourself, your spouse, and any children or other dependents you may have.

—if you are currently unmarried: yourself and any children or other dependents you may have.

-
34. Do you or your family:
- a. _____ Own your house or condominium
 - b. _____ Rent a house or apartment
 - c. _____ Rent a room
 - d. _____ Live with relatives
 - e. _____ Other
35. How much do you or your family pay each *month* for rent or a home mortgage?
- a. _____ Less than \$200
 - b. _____ \$200-\$250
 - c. _____ \$251-\$300
 - d. _____ \$301-\$400
 - e. _____ \$401-\$500
 - f. _____ \$501-\$600
 - g. _____ More than \$600
 - h. _____ Home completely paid for
36. How much do you or your family usually spend each *month* on credit payments or loans?
(Do *not* include your home mortgage if you have one.)
- a. _____ Nothing
 - b. _____ Less than \$50
 - c. _____ \$50-\$100
 - d. _____ \$101-\$200
 - e. _____ \$201-\$300
 - f. _____ \$301-\$400
 - g. _____ More than \$400
-
37. About how much do you or your family usually spend each *month* on clothes?
- a. _____ Less than \$50
 - b. _____ \$50-\$100
 - c. _____ \$101-\$200
 - d. _____ \$201-\$300
 - e. _____ More than \$300
-
38. In general, what percent of your or your family's take-home pay are you able to put into savings?
- a. _____ None
 - b. _____ Less than 5%
 - c. _____ 5-10%
 - d. _____ 11-15%
 - e. _____ 16-20%
 - f. _____ More than 20%
 - g. _____ Have never worked
-
39. How much money did you *personally* earn in the last year?
- a. _____ None
 - b. _____ Less than \$10,000
 - c. _____ \$10,000-\$20,000
 - d. _____ \$20,001-\$30,000
 - e. _____ More than \$30,000
-
40. Approximately what annual salary do you think you will be earning ten years from now?
- a. _____ \$10,000
 - b. _____ \$20,000
 - c. _____ \$30,000
 - d. _____ \$40,000
 - e. _____ \$50,000
 - f. _____ Will be retired by then
 - g. _____ Will not be employed
-

41. Do you have:
(You may check more than one.)
- a. _____ Personal charge account(s)
b. _____ Joint charge account(s)
c. _____ No charge account(s)
42. What is the total amount of life insurance carried on all members of your family?
(Or on your own life if you have no family.)
- a. _____ None
b. _____ Less than \$10,000
c. _____ \$10,000-\$20,000
d. _____ \$20,001-\$30,000
e. _____ \$30,001-\$50,000
f. _____ More than \$50,000
43. What kinds of life insurance do you carry on yourself or other people in your family (if you have one)?
(You may check more than one.)
- a. _____ None
b. _____ Insurance arranged through the company you work for
c. _____ Military service insurance
d. _____ Other
44. If you have a family, how much of its income did you provide in the last year?
- a. _____ Less than 20%
b. _____ 20-40%
c. _____ 41-60%
d. _____ 61-80%
e. _____ More than 80%
f. _____ Does not apply
45. How many times have you or your family bought real estate?
(For example, a house, a piece of land.)
- a. _____ None
b. _____ 1
c. _____ 2
d. _____ 3 or more
46. How many cars do you or your family own?
- a. _____ None
b. _____ 1
c. _____ 2
d. _____ More than 2
47. Do you or your family usually buy:
- a. _____ New cars
b. _____ Used cars
c. _____ Have never bought a car
48. If you or your family were to get cash for all the major things you own, about how much money would you have?
(Include such things as equity in your home, the present value of your car and of paid-up insurance, savings accounts, and stocks and bonds.)
- a. _____ Don't know
b. _____ Would be in debt
c. _____ Less than \$5,000
d. _____ \$5,000-\$10,000
e. _____ \$10,001-\$15,000
f. _____ \$15,001-\$20,000
g. _____ \$20,001-\$25,000
h. _____ \$25,001-\$30,000
i. _____ More than \$30,000

If you are not married, skip to question 52.

49. How many years has your spouse been working?
- a. _____ Has never worked
b. _____ Less than 1 year
c. _____ 1-5 years
d. _____ 5-10 years
e. _____ More than 10 years

50. How much money did your spouse earn in the last year?

- a. _____ None
- b. _____ Less than \$10,000
- c. _____ \$10,000 - \$15,000
- d. _____ \$15,001 - \$20,000
- e. _____ \$20,001 - \$30,000
- f. _____ More than \$30,000

51. In your home, who makes the major decisions?
(For example, to move to a new place, to buy a new car.)

- a. _____ You make these decisions
- b. _____ You and your spouse make them together
- c. _____ You make some of them and your spouse makes some
- d. _____ Your spouse makes them
- e. _____ Don't know

Parental Family Information

52. Including yourself, how many children did your mother and father have?
(Do not include stepchildren or children who died before age one.)

- a. _____ 1
- b. _____ 2
- c. _____ 3
- d. _____ 4
- e. _____ 5
- f. _____ 6
- g. _____ 7 or more
- h. _____ Don't know

53. How far did your father go in school?

- a. _____ Don't know
- b. _____ Less than 8 years
- c. _____ Completed 8th grade
- d. _____ 9-11 years
- e. _____ Graduated from high school
- f. _____ Special training (e.g., vocational)
- g. _____ 1-3 years college
- h. _____ College degree
- i. _____ Graduate school

54. How far did your mother go in school?

- a. _____ Don't know
- b. _____ Less than 8 years
- c. _____ Completed 8th grade
- d. _____ 9-11 years
- e. _____ Graduated from high school
- f. _____ Special training (e.g., nursing, secretarial)
- g. _____ 1-3 years college
- h. _____ College degree
- i. _____ Graduate school

55. When you were a child, were your parents:
(Check only one.)

- a. _____ Together
- b. _____ Separated
- c. _____ Divorced
- d. _____ One or both deceased

56. When you were a child, who usually made the major decisions in your family?
(for example, to move to a new place, to buy a new car.)

- a. _____ Mother
- b. _____ Father
- c. _____ Mother and father together
- d. _____ Mother made some and father made some
- e. _____ Another person
- f. _____ Don't know

57. When you were a child, how often did your mother and father include you in their leisure-time activities?
- _____ Almost always
 - _____ Often
 - _____ Seldom
 - _____ Never
58. When you were a child, was your family life:
- _____ Very happy
 - _____ Average
 - _____ Unhappy
 - _____ Raised away from home
59. When you were a child, did you like one of your parents more than the other?
- _____ No
 - _____ Yes, mother
 - _____ Yes, father
60. Do you feel that your mother was or is a success as a mother?
- _____ Yes
 - _____ Partly
 - _____ Not sure
 - _____ No
61. Do you feel that your father was or is a success as a father?
- _____ Yes
 - _____ Partly
 - _____ Not sure
 - _____ No
62. When you were in your teens and needed help with a problem, did you usually go to:
(You may check more than one.)
- _____ Your mother
 - _____ Your father
 - _____ A brother or sister
 - _____ Some other relative
 - _____ A teacher
 - _____ A friend
 - _____ A minister, priest or rabbi
 - _____ Other
63. When you were in your teens, how often did you talk with your parents or other adults about what you wanted to do in life?
- _____ Often
 - _____ Sometimes
 - _____ Seldom
 - _____ Never
64. In which way would you like *most* to do more for your children than your parents did for you?
(Check only *one*.)
- _____ Better standard of living
 - _____ Better opportunity for education
 - _____ More independence
 - _____ More love
 - _____ More understanding
 - _____ Hope to do as well as my parents did

65. How old are you now?
- _____ Under 21 years
 - _____ 21-24 years
 - _____ 25-29 years
 - _____ 30-34 years
 - _____ 35-39 years
 - _____ 40-44 years
 - _____ 45-49 years
 - _____ 50 years or more
66. Check any of the following you may have suffered from more often than the average person:
- _____ None
 - _____ Hay fever
 - _____ Asthma
 - _____ Allergies
 - _____ Stomach trouble
 - _____ Headache
 - _____ Back trouble
 - _____ Insomnia
 - _____ Menstrual pain
 - _____ Other
67. Up until you were 12, about how often did you have minor illnesses?
- _____ Much more often than average
 - _____ More often than average
 - _____ About as often as average
 - _____ Less often than average
 - _____ Almost never
68. Between the time you were 12 and the time you were 21, how many times were you so sick that you had to stay in a hospital?
(Do not count birth of children.)
- _____ None
 - _____ 1
 - _____ 2
 - _____ 3 or more
69. During the last year, how many days did you lose from work because you were sick?
(Do not include injuries.)
- _____ None
 - _____ 1-3
 - _____ 4-9
 - _____ 10 or more
 - _____ Was not working last year
70. During the last year, how many days did you lose from work because members of your family were sick?
- _____ None
 - _____ 1-3
 - _____ 4-9
 - _____ 10 or more
 - _____ Was not working last year
71. Taking your life as a whole, how would you describe your health?
- _____ Excellent
 - _____ Better than average
 - _____ About average
 - _____ Worse than average
 - _____ Much worse than average

SECTION I

INSTRUCTIONS

Please say how true is this of your school by circling one of the numbers on the right side of each statement.

KEY: 1 = never
 2 = rarely occurs
 3 = sometimes occurs
 4 = often occurs
 5 = very frequently occurs

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Teachers closest friends are other faculty members at this school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. The mannerisms of teachers at this school are annoying | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Teachers spend time after school with students who have individual problems. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Instructions for the operation of teaching aids are available. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Teachers invite other faculty members to visit them at home. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. There is a minority group of teachers who always oppose the majority. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Extra books are available for classroom use. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Sufficient time is given to prepare administrative reports. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. Teachers know the family background of other faculty members. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Teachers exert group pressure on non-conforming faculty members | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. In faculty meetings, there is the feeling of "let's get things done." | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

SECTION I cont'd.

KEY: 1 = never
 2 = rarely occurs
 3 = sometimes occurs
 4 = often occurs
 5 = very frequently occurs

12.	Administrative paperwork is burdensome at this school.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Teachers talk about their personal life to other faculty members.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Teachers seek special favors from the principal.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	School supplies are readily available for use in paper work.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Student progress reports require too much work.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Teachers have fun socializing together during school time	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Teachers interrupt other faculty members who are talking in staff meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Most of the teachers here accept the faults of their colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Teachers have too many committee requirements.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	There is considerable laughter when teachers gather informally	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Teachers ask nonsensical questions in faculty meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Custodial Service is available when needed.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Routine duties interfere with the job of teaching	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Teachers prepare administrative reports by themselves.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION I Cont'd.

KEY: 1 = never
 2 = rarely occurs
 3 = sometimes occurs
 4 = often occurs
 5 = very frequently occurs

26.	Teachers ramble when they talk in faculty meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	Teachers at this school show much school spirit.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	The principal goes out of his way to help teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	The principal helps teachers solve personal problems.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	Teachers at this school stay by themselves.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	The teachers accomplish their work with great vim, vigor, and pleasure.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	The principal sets an example by working hard himself.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	The principal does personal favors for teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	Teachers eat lunch by themselves in their own classrooms.	1	2	3	4	5
35.	The morale of the teachers is high.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	The principal uses constructive criticism.	1	2	3	4	5
37.	The principal stays after school to help teachers finish their work.	1	2	3	4	5
38.	Teachers socialize together in small select groups.	1	2	3	4	5
39.	The principal makes all class scheduling decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
40.	Teachers are contacted by the principal each day.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION I cont'd.

KEY: 1 = never
 2 = rarely occurs
 3 = sometimes occurs
 4 = often occurs
 5 = very frequently occurs

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 41. The principal is well prepared when he speaks at school functions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 42. The principal helps staff members settle minor differences. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 43. Teachers leave the grounds during the school day. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 44. The principal schedules the work for the teachers. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 45. The principal insures that teachers work to their full capacity. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 46. Teachers help select which courses will be taught. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 47. The principal corrects teachers' mistakes. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 48. The principal talks a great deal. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 49. The principal explains his reasons for criticism to teachers. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 50. The principal tries to get better salaries for teachers. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 51. Extra duty for teachers is posted conspicuously. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 52. The rules set by the principal are never questioned. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 53. The principal looks out for the personal welfare of teachers. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 54. School secretarial service is available for teachers' use. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

SECTION I cont'd.

KEY: 1 = never
 2 = rarely occurs
 3 = sometimes occurs
 4 = often occurs
 5 = very frequently occurs

55.	The principal runs the faculty meeting like a business conference	1	2	3	4	5
56.	The principal is in the building before teachers arrive.	1	2	3	4	5
57.	Teachers work together preparing administrative reports.	1	2	3	4	5
58.	Faculty meetings are mainly principal-report meetings	1	2	3	4	5
59.	Faculty meetings are organized according to a tight agenda.	1	2	3	4	5
60.	The principal tells teachers of new ideas he has run across.	1	2	3	4	5
61.	Teachers talk about leaving the school system.	1	2	3	4	5
62.	The principal checks the subject matter ability of teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
63.	The principal is easy to understand.	1	2	3	4	5
64.	Teachers are informed of the results of a Supervisor's visit.	1	2	3	4	5

1. Put the welfare of your unit above the welfare of any person in it.

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Never

2. Give in to your subordinates in discussions with them.

- ☐ Often
- ☐ Fairly often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Once in a while
- ☐ Very Seldom

3. Encourage after-duty work by persons of your unit.

- ☐ A great deal
- ☐ Fairly often
- ☐ To some degree
- ☐ Once in a while
- ☐ Very seldom

4. Try out your own new ideas in the unit.

- ☐ Often
- ☐ Fairly often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Once in a while
- ☐ Very seldom

5. Back up what persons under you do.

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Never

6. Criticize poor work.

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Never

7. Ask for more than the persons under you can accomplish.

- ☐ Often
- ☐ Fairly often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Once in a while
- ☐ Very seldom

8. Refuse to compromise a point.

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Never

9. Insist that persons under you follow to the letter those standard routines handed down to you.

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Never

10. Help persons under you with their personal problems.

- ☐ Often
- ☐ Fairly often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Once in a while
- ☐ Very seldom

11. Be slow to adopt new ideas.

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Never

12. Get the approval of persons under you on important matters before going ahead.

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Never

13. Resist changes in ways of doing things.

- ☐ A great deal
- ☐ Fairly much
- ☐ To some degree
- ☐ Comparatively li
- ☐ Not at all

14. Assign persons under you to particular tasks.

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Never

15. Speak in a manner not to be questioned.

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Never

16. Stress importance of being ahead of other units.

- ☐ A great deal
- ☐ Fairly much
- ☐ To some degree
- ☐ Comparatively li
- ☐ Not at all

17. Criticize a specific act rather than a particular member of your unit.

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Never

18. Let the persons under you do their work the way they think is best.

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Never

19. Do personal favors for persons under you.

- ☐ Often
- ☐ Fairly often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Once in a while
- ☐ Very seldom

20. Emphasize meeting of deadlines.

- ☐ A great deal
- ☐ Fairly much
- ☐ To some degree
- ☐ Comparatively li
- ☐ Not at all

21.
Insist that you be informed on decisions made by persons under you.

- ☐ Always
☐ Often
☐ Occasionally
☐ Seldom
☐ Never

31.
See to it that persons under you are working up to capacity.

- ☐ Always
☐ Often
☐ Occasionally
☐ Seldom
☐ Never

22.
Offer new approaches to problems.

- ☐ Often
☐ Fairly often
☐ Occasionally
☐ Once in a while
☐ Very seldom

32.
Stand up for persons under you, even though it makes you unpopular with others.

- ☐ Always
☐ Often
☐ Occasionally
☐ Seldom
☐ Never

23.
Treat all persons under you as your equals.

- ☐ Always
☐ Often
☐ Occasionally
☐ Seldom
☐ Never

33.
Put suggestions made by persons in the unit into operation.

- ☐ Often
☐ Fairly often
☐ Occasionally
☐ Once in a wh
☐ Very seldom

24.
Be willing to make changes.

- ☐ Always
☐ Often
☐ Occasionally
☐ Seldom
☐ Never

34.
Refuse to explain your actions.

- ☐ Often
☐ Fairly often
☐ Occasionally
☐ Once in a wh
☐ Very seldom

25.
Talk about how much should be done.

- ☐ A great deal
☐ Fairly much
☐ To some degree
☐ Comparatively little
☐ Not at all

35.
Ask for sacrifices from persons under you for the good of your entire unit.

- ☐ Often
☐ Fairly often
☐ Occasionally
☐ Once in a wh
☐ Very seldom

26.
Wait for persons in your unit to push new ideas.

- ☐ Always
☐ Often
☐ Occasionally
☐ Seldom
☐ Never

36.
Act without consulting persons under you.

- ☐ Often
☐ Fairly often
☐ Occasionally
☐ Once in a wh
☐ Very seldom

27.
Rule with an iron hand.

- ☐ Always
☐ Often
☐ Occasionally
☐ Seldom
☐ Never

37.
"Needle" persons under you for greater effort.

- ☐ A great deal
☐ Fairly much
☐ To some deg
☐ Comparative
☐ Not at all

28.
Reject suggestions for changes.

- ☐ Always
☐ Often
☐ Occasionally
☐ Seldom
☐ Never

38.
Insist that everything be done your way.

- ☐ Always
☐ Often
☐ Occasionally
☐ Seldom
☐ Never

29.
Change the duties of persons under you without first talking it over with them.

- ☐ Often
☐ Fairly often
☐ Occasionally
☐ Once in a while
☐ Very seldom

39.
Encourage slow-working persons in your unit to work harder.

- ☐ Often
☐ Fairly often
☐ Occasionally
☐ Once in a wh
☐ Very seldom

30.
Decide in detail what shall be done and how it shall be done by

- ☐ Always
☐ Often
☐ Occasionally
☐ Seldom

40.
Meet with the persons in your unit at certain regularly scheduled

- ☐ Always
☐ Often
☐ Occasionally
☐ Seldom

《第一部》

就業経験について

1. あなたは、どのような形で仕事をしてきましたか？

- a. 常勤である
- b. 非常勤である
- c. 今までに仕事についたことがない

☆もし、あなたが常勤で就職したことがなければ15番目の設問までとばして下さい。

2. あなたのしてきた仕事はいつも同じですか？〔教育関係は同一種類とみなします〕

- a. 同じ様な仕事をしてきた
- b. いくらか違った仕事をしてきた
- c. かなり違った仕事をしてきた

3. 就職してから合計で何年ぐらい働いていますか？

- a. 2年以内
- b. 2～4年
- c. 5～7年
- d. 8～10年
- e. 11～13年
- f. 14年以上

4. いくつくらいの企業または団体で働きましたか？

〔公立の学校の場合、県を一つの団体とみなします。〕

- a. 1～2
- b. 3～4
- c. 5～6
- d. 7以上

5. 1つの企業または団体で最も長く働いたのは何年ですか？

- a. 1年以内
- b. 1～2年
- c. 3～4年
- d. 5～7年
- e. 8～10年
- f. 11～13年
- g. 14年以上

6. 常に一般の人々との交流がもてたのはいくつぐらいの仕事ですか？

〔一般の人々とは職場外の人を指し、例えば父兄も含まれます〕

- a. ない
- b. 1
- c. 2
- d. 3
- e. 4つ以上

7. 他の人を監督する立場になったのは、いくつぐらいの職場においてですか？

〔監督する立場とは主任(lead teacher)以上の職を指します。職場は学区に関係なく、1つの学校を1つと数えます〕

- a. ない
- b. 1
- c. 2
- d. 3
- e. 4つ以上

8. よい仕事をしたために給料が上がったのは、いくつぐらいの職場においてですか？

〔定期昇給または組合の交渉による昇給は入れないこと〕

- a. ない
- b. 1
- c. 2
- d. 3
- e. 4つ以上

9. あなたの仕事があなたにとって唯一の収入源であったのは何年間ですか？

- a. ない
- b. 2年以内
- c. 2～4年
- d. 5～7年
- e. 8～10年
- f. 11～13年
- g. 14年以上

10. あなたが自分の仕事で経済的に自立したのはいくつの年ですか？
- a. まだ完全に自立していない
 - b. 17才以下
 - c. 17～18才
 - d. 19～20才
 - e. 21～22才
 - f. 23才以上
11. 前の仕事より時間給が少ない仕事をしたことがありますか？
- a. はい
 - b. いいえ
12. あなたが最も活躍する時期はいつだと思いますか？
- a. いつか将来に
 - b. 今がその時だ
 - c. 過去にあった
 - d. 特にそういう時期はない
13. 学校の卒業以来、仕事を休む回数は平均して何回ぐらいですか？
- a. 1週間に1回かそこら
 - b. 1か月に1回から3回
 - c. 1か月に1回以下
 - d. 1年に2・3回
 - e. 決して休まない
14. 学校の卒業以来、出勤時間に10分以上遅刻したのは平均何回ぐらいですか？
- a. 1週間に1回かそこら
 - b. 1か月に1回から3回
 - c. 1か月に1回以下
 - d. 1年に2・3回
 - e. 決して遅刻しない
15. 学生時代にどのくらいアルバイトをしましたか？
- a. 授業が終わった後は、ほとんどの時間働いた
 - b. 授業が終わった後に、決まった時間働いたが、勉強や余暇のためにも充分時間をとった
 - c. 授業が終わった後に、たまに働いた
 - d. 授業が終わった後は、ほとんど働かなかった

16. 理想的な仕事を選ぶとしたら？

- a. 人との交流がたくさんもてる仕事
- b. 小グループで働くことができる仕事
- c. 一人の人と緊密に組んでやれる仕事
- d. 自分一人でやれる仕事

17. 仕事に対する責任について、あなたはどのように思いますか？

- a. 多くの責任を持ちたい
- b. いくつかの責任は持ちたいが、自分の上に責任者がついていてほしい
- c. 責任は少ない方がよい
- d. むしろ責任は持ちたくない

18. ふつうどれくらいのスピードで仕事をしていますか？

- a. 他の人よりもずいぶん早い
- b. 他の人よりもやや早い
- c. 他の人と同じくらい
- d. 他の人よりもやや遅い
- e. 他の人よりもかなり遅い
- f. わからない

教育経験について

19. あなたはどの程度まで教育を受けましたか？

- a. 8年以下
- b. 8年まで修了
- c. 9～11年
- d. 高校卒業
- e. 専門学校
- f. 短期大学または大学に3年まで在籍
- g. 四年制大学卒業
- h. 大学院

20. あなたの小学生時代をどのように思いますか？

- a. すばらしかった
- b. 普通
- c. つまらなかった

※ もしあなたが高等学校へ行っていなければ質問28まで飛んでください。

21. 高校での勉学をどう思いましたか？

- a. 全く易しかった
- b. かなり易しかった
- c. 易しくも難しくもなかった
- d. かなり難しかった
- e. 全く難しかった

22. 学校時代にあなたが最善を尽くしていたら、あなたの学業成績はどこまでいけたとおもいますか？

- a. 上位10%
- b. 上位25%
- c. 上位50%
- d. 下位50%
- e. 判らない

23. 高校時代に大変好きな課目はいくつありましたか？

- a. なし
- b. 1
- c. 2
- d. 3
- e. 4

24. 高校時代あなたの成績はクラスの中でどの位でしたか？

- a. 上位10%
- b. 上位25%
- c. 上位50%
- d. 下位50%
- e. 判らない

活動と関心事項について

25. 高校時代いくつの活動に参加しましたか〔生徒会、運動部など〕

- a. なし
- b. 1
- c. 2～3
- d. 4～5
- e. 6～7
- f. 8またはそれ以上

26. 高校の卒業前の2年間、運動に1週間何時間ぐらい費やしましたか

- a. なし
- b. 1～4時間
- c. 5～9時間
- d. 10時間またはそれ以上

27. 高校時代に屋外での関心事をいくつもっていましたか〔趣味、運動など〕

- a. なし
- b. 1
- c. 2
- d. 3
- e. 4
- f. 5つまたはそれ以上

28. 過去3年間であなたがよく活動したのはいくつの団体においてですか
〔宗教団体, 近隣のグループ, 運動のグループなど〕

- a. なし
- b. 1
- c. 2
- d. 3
- e. 4つ以上

29. 過去5年間であなたは何回ぐらい団体の役員になりましたか？
〔会長, 委員長, 幹事など〕

- a. なし
- b. 1
- c. 2
- d. 3
- e. 4回以上

家族状況について

30. 子供は現在何人居ますか？〔継子も含む〕

- a. いない
- b. 1人
- c. 2人
- d. 3人
- e. 4人
- f. 5人またはそれ以上

※ あなたに子供がいなければ、質問34へ飛んでください。

31. あなたに子供が生まれたのは、あなたが何才の時でしたか？

- a. 18才以下
- b. 18～21才
- c. 22～24才
- d. 25～27才
- e. 28～30才
- f. 31才またはそれ以上

32. あなたは何人の子供と同居していますか？

- a. いない
- b. 1人
- c. 2人
- d. 3人
- e. 4人
- f. 5人またはそれ以上

33. 子供をどの程度まで進学させたいですか？

- a. 小学校
- b. 高校
- c. 専門学校〔例えば、職業訓練学校〕
- d. 短期大学
- e. 大学
- f. 大学院
- g. 決めていない

経済状況について

このセクションでの“家庭”とは次のことを意味します。

- もし今、結婚しているならば、あなた自身、配偶者と他の扶養家族のことです。
- もし今、結婚していないならば、あなた自身とあなたが面倒をみななければいけない人のことです。

34. 住居は

- a. 家かマンションを所有している。
- b. 借家またはアパート
- c. 借室
- d. 親戚と住んでいる
- e. その他

35. 1か月の家賃または家などの支払いはいくらくらいですか？

- a. 3万円以下
- b. 30,000～37,500円
- c. 37,501～45,000円
- d. 45,001～60,000円
- e. 60,001～75,000円
- f. 75,001～90,000円
- g. 90,000円以上
- h. 家の支払いは終わった

36. 家族全員のクレジットカードやローンの支払いは1か月いくらですか？

〔家の支払いを含まない〕

- a. なし
- b. 7,500円以下
- c. 7,500～15,000円
- d. 15,001～30,000円
- e. 30,001～45,000円
- f. 45,001～60,000円
- g. 60,000円以上

37. 家族全員で衣服に1か月でいくらぐらい使いますか？

- a. 7,500円以下
- b. 7,500～15,000円
- c. 15,001～30,000円
- d. 30,001～45,000円
- e. 45,000円以上

38. 給与(手取り)の何パーセントを貯金しますか？

- a. なし
- b. 5%以下
- c. 5～10%
- d. 11～15%
- e. 16～20%
- f. 20%以上
- g. 働いたことがない

39. 昨年のあなたの年収はいくらでしたか？

- a. なし
- b. 150万円以下
- c. 150～300万円
- d. 301万～450万円
- e. 450万円以上

40. 今から10年後の年収はだいたいいくらぐらいになるとお考えでしょうか？

- a. 150万円
- b. 300万円
- c. 450万円
- d. 600万円
- e. 750万円
- f. それまでに退職しているだろう
- g. そのころ仕事をするつもりはない

41. 次のどれかを持っていますか〔複数回答可〕

- a. 自分のクレジット・カード
- b. 共用のクレジット・カード
- c. クレジット・カードを持っていない

42. 家族全員の生命保険の総額はいくらですか

- a. なし
- b. 150万円以下
- c. 150～300万円
- d. 301万～450万円
- e. 451万～750万円
- f. 750万円以上

43. もし生命保険をかけているならば、それはどんな種類のものですか？〔複数回答可〕

- a. 生命保険をかけていない
- b. あなたの勤務する会社を通しての保険
- c. 軍隊の保険
- d. その他

44. 家族がある場合、全員の収入のうち、あなたの給与がしめる割合は

- a. 20%以下
- b. 20～40%
- c. 41～60%
- d. 61～80%
- e. 80%以上
- f. 該当しない

45. あなたまたは家族が今までに不動産(家や土地等)を買ったことがありますか？

- a. ない
- b. 1回
- c. 2回
- d. 3回またはそれ以上

46. あなたまたは家族で何台の車を所有していますか？

- a. ない
- b. 1台
- c. 2台
- d. 3台以上

47. いつもどのような車を買いますか？

- a. 新車
- b. 中古車
- c. 車を買ったことがない

48. 家族全員の持っている主要なものを現金に換算すると、価値はいくらくらいになりますか

〔家・土地の支払い額、車の現在の評価額、保険の現在の評価額、貯金、株、有価証券など〕

- a. わからない
- b. マイナスになる
- c. 75万円以下
- d. 75万～150万円
- e. 151万～225万円
- f. 226万～300万円
- g. 301万～375万円
- h. 376万～450万円
- i. 450万円以上

※ あなたが結婚していなければ、質問52へ飛んでください。

49. 奥様は何年くらい働いていますか？

- a. 働いたことがない
- b. 1年以内
- c. 1～5年
- d. 5～10年
- e. 10年以上

50. 配偶者の昨年の年収は？

- a. ない
- b. 150万円以下
- c. 150万～225万円
- d. 226万～300万円
- e. 301万～450万円
- f. 450万円以上

51. 家族の中で誰が主な決定権をもっていますか？〔移転や新車の購入など〕

- a. あなた自身が全部決める
- b. 配偶者といっしょに決める
- c. あるものはあなた自身が決め、あるものは配偶者が決める
- d. 配偶者が全部決める
- e. わからない

ご両親について

52. あなたを含めて、何人の子供がいましたか？〔継子や1才未満で死亡した子供は含まない〕

- a. 1人
- b. 2人
- c. 3人
- d. 4人
- e. 5人
- f. 6人
- g. 7人またはそれ以上
- h. わからない

53. 父親の学歴は？

- a. わからない
- b. 中学校を卒業していない
- c. 中学校卒業
- d. 高校中退
- e. 高校卒業
- f. 専門学校卒業
- g. 短期大学卒業または大学中退
- h. 大学卒業
- i. 大学院

54. 母親の学歴は？

- a. わからない
- b. 中学校を卒業していない
- c. 中学校卒業
- d. 高校中退
- e. 高校卒業
- f. 専門学校卒業
- g. 短期大学卒業または大学中退
- h. 大学卒業
- i. 大学院

55. あなたが子供の時、両親は？

- a. いっしょに住んでいた
- b. 別居していた
- c. 離婚していた
- d. 片親または両親とも亡くなっていた

56. あなたが子供の時、家庭内では主な決定権を誰がもっていましたか？

- a. 母親
- b. 父親
- c. 両親がいっしょに決めていた
- d. あるものは父が、あるものは母が決めていた
- e. 他の人
- f. わからない

57. あなたが子供の時、両親は休みの時にあなたとどれくらいいっしょに過ごしましたか？
- a. 殆どいつもいっしょだった
 - b. よくいっしょに過ごした
 - c. めったにいっしょに過ごさなかった
 - d. いっしょに過ごしたことはなかった
58. あなたが子供の時、家庭生活は
- a. とても幸せだった
 - b. ふつう
 - c. 幸せではなかった
 - d. 家庭から離れて育てられた
59. あなたが子供の時、両親のどちらかをもう1人の親より好きでしたか？
- a. いいえ
 - b. 母親が好きだった
 - c. 父親が好きだった
60. 母親は母親として合格でしたか？
- a. 合格
 - b. 部分的に合格
 - c. わからない
 - d. 不合格
61. 父親は父親として合格でしたか？
- a. 合格
 - b. 部分的に合格
 - c. わからない
 - d. 不合格
62. あなたが10代のときに、問題を解決するために誰に相談に行きましたか？〔複数回答可〕
- a. 母親
 - b. 父親
 - c. 兄弟、姉妹
 - d. 親戚
 - e. 先生
 - f. 友人
 - g. 牧師などの宗教家
 - h. その他

63. あなたが10代のときに、将来何をやるかについて両親や他の大人とよく相談しましたか
- a. よくした
 - b. ときどきした
 - c. めったにしなかった
 - d. しなかった
64. 親があなたにしてくれた以上に、あなたがあなたの子供にして与えたい事で、何を最も優先させたいですか？〔複数回答可〕
- a. よい生活水準を与えること
 - b. よい教育の機会を与えること
 - c. 自立させること
 - d. 愛情を多くそそぐこと
 - e. よく理解をしてあげること
 - f. あなたの親があなたにしてくれたのと同様のこと

健康について

65. 今、あなたは何才ですか？
- a. 21才以下
 - b. 21～24才
 - c. 25～29才
 - d. 30～34才
 - e. 35～39才
 - f. 40～44才
 - g. 45～49才
 - h. 50才またはそれ以上
66. 通常の人よりも身体的に困っているものを選んでください〔複数回答可〕
- a. なし
 - b. 花粉症
 - c. ぜんそく
 - d. アレルギー
 - e. 胃障害
 - f. 頭痛
 - g. 背中の障害
 - h. 不眠症
 - i. 生理痛
 - j. その他

67. 12才までに、小さな病気によくかかりましたか？
- a. 平均よりもかなり多かった
 - b. 平均よりも多かった
 - c. 平均的だった
 - d. 平均よりも少なかった
 - e. ほとんどなかった
68. 12才から21才までの間に、入院しなければいけないような病気に何度くらいかかりましたか？〔出産を除く〕
- a. なし
 - b. 1回
 - c. 2回
 - d. 3回またはそれ以上
69. 昨年、病気のために何日くらい仕事を休みましたか？
- a. なし
 - b. 1～3回
 - c. 4～9回
 - d. 10回またはそれ以上
 - e. 昨年は働いていない
70. 昨年、家族の病気のために何日くらい仕事を休みましたか？
- a. なし
 - b. 1～3回
 - c. 4～9回
 - d. 10回またはそれ以上
 - e. 昨年は働いていない
71. 全体として、あなたの健康状態はどうでしたか？
- a. 大変良い
 - b. 平均より良い
 - c. 平均的
 - d. 平均より悪い
 - e. 平均よりかなり悪い

《第二部》

[要領]あなたの学校にあてはまる答えを○印で囲んで下さい。

- 答え
1. ない
 2. あまりない
 3. 時々ある
 4. よくある
 5. 頻繁にある

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. あなたの学校では、先生方は最も親しい友人を
同じ校内に持っている | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. 先生方に困った癖がある | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. 先生方は、個人的な問題をもつ生徒に、放課後
時間を使う | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. 先生は、教育機材の扱い方について解説を受け
ることができる | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. 先生方は、他の先生を自宅に招いている | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. 多数派にいつも反対している少数派の先生グループがある | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. 教室用として余分に教科書などが備えてある | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. 校外の機関に書類を提出する場合、作成に十分な
時間が与えられている | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. 先生方は、他の先生方の家庭環境を知っている | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. 先生方は、決めたことに従わない先生に対して集団の
圧力をかける | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

11. 職員会議では、「皆で事を成し遂げよう」という空気がある

1 2 3 4 5

12. 校外の機関に提出するための事務的業務は重荷である

1 2 3 4 5

13. 先生方は、他の先生に個人的な生活について話をする

1 2 3 4 5

14. 先生方は、校長先生に特別な扱いを求めている

1 2 3 4 5

15. クラスまたは事務的な業務のための事務用品は、
いつも学校がそろえている

1 2 3 4 5

16. 児童の進歩報告の仕事量は多すぎる

1 2 3 4 5

17. 先生方は、学校に居る間にお互い楽しく交流をしている

1 2 3 4 5

18. 職員会議で人が話をしているときに、途中で割り込んで
話の邪魔をする先生がいる

1 2 3 4 5

19. ほとんどの先生は、同僚の失敗に寛容である

1 2 3 4 5

20. 先生が参加しなければいけない委員会の仕事が多すぎる

1 2 3 4 5

21. 先生が非公式に集まっている時は、よく笑いが出る

1 2 3 4 5

22. 職員会議で、先生がばかげた質問をする

1 2 3 4 5

23. 必要な時に、貴重品管理のサービスがある					
	1	2	3	4	5
24. 毎日果たさなければいけない仕事が教鞭をとるための 障害となる					
	1	2	3	4	5
25. 校外または校長への提出書類は、先生が自分で作成する					
	1	2	3	4	5
26. 職員会議で話すとき、歩き回る先生がいる					
	1	2	3	4	5
27. 先生方は、愛校心に富んでいる					
	1	2	3	4	5
28. 校長先生がわざわざ先生方の手伝いをしてやる					
	1	2	3	4	5
29. 校長先生が先生方の個人的な問題を解決する力になる					
	1	2	3	4	5
30. 先生方は一人一人ばらばらである					
	1	2	3	4	5
31. 先生方は、精力的に元気で喜びをもって仕事をやっている					
	1	2	3	4	5
32. 校長先生は自分自身をハードワークの見本としている					
	1	2	3	4	5
33. 校長先生は先生方に対して、個人的なお世話をする					
	1	2	3	4	5
34. 先生は自分だけで昼食をとる					
	1	2	3	4	5

35. 先生方の士気は高い

1 2 3 4 5

36. 校長先生は建設的な批判をする

1 2 3 4 5

37. 校長先生は先生方が仕事を終えるのに力を貸すために
放課後も残っている

1 2 3 4 5

38. 先生方は、自分たちが作った小グループの中で
打ち解けた交流をもつ

1 2 3 4 5

39. 校長先生が全クラスの授業日程を決める

1 2 3 4 5

40. 先生方は、校長先生と毎日接触を持っている

1 2 3 4 5

41. 校長先生は、学校の行事で話をするとき、十分な
準備をしている

1 2 3 4 5

42. 校長先生は、教職員間のいざこざを解決するのに力となる

1 2 3 4 5

43. 先生は学校がある日に職場を早退する

1 2 3 4 5

44. 校長先生が、先生の授業や仕事の日程を組む

1 2 3 4 5

45. 校長先生は、先生方が十分な能力を発揮できるように
保証する

1 2 3 4 5

46. 先生方は、教える教科を選ぼうと校長先生を助ける

1 2 3 4 5

47. 校長先生は先生の間違いを正す					
	1	2	3	4	5
48. 校長先生はよく話をする					
	1	2	3	4	5
49. 校長先生は、先生を批判するとき、その理由を説明する					
	1	2	3	4	5
50. 校長先生は、先生方がよい給料をもらえるように努力する					
	1	2	3	4	5
51. 余分な仕事が先生方に割り当てられるとき、それが 目立つように公示される					
	1	2	3	4	5
52. 校長先生が決めた規則は、一度も問題にならないか？					
	1	2	3	4	5
53. 校長先生は、先生個人個人の福祉に気をつけている					
	1	2	3	4	5
54. 学校の秘書を先生方も利用できる					
	1	2	3	4	5
55. 校長先生は、職員会議を企業の会社のように運営する					
	1	2	3	4	5
56. 校長先生は、先生方が登校する前に学校に来ている					
	1	2	3	4	5
57. 先生方は校外の機関へ提出する書類を作成するのに 力を合わせている					
	1	2	3	4	5
58. 職員会議は、校長先生の一方向的な報告に終わる					
	1	2	3	4	5

59. 職員会議は、きちんとした議題に従って行なわれる

1 2 3 4 5

60. 校長先生は、自分が考えついた新しい構想を先生方に話す

1 2 3 4 5

61. 先生が学校を辞める話をする

1 2 3 4 5

62. 校長先生は、先生方の担当教科に関する能力を点検する

1 2 3 4 5

63. 校長先生は理解しやすい

1 2 3 4 5

64. 先生方は指導主事の視察の結果を知らされている

1 2 3 4 5

《第三部》

☆次の20の意見は学校・先生・生徒に関するものです。あなたの個人的意見を右手のあてはまる数字を○で囲って示して下さい。

1. 大いに賛成
2. 賛成
3. どちらともつかない
4. 不賛成
5. 強く反対

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. 全校集会などでは生徒がクラス別に割り当てられた席に座るほうが望ましい | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. 生徒は 普通 彼らの問題を論理的に考えて解決を下すことはできないものだ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. 反抗的な生徒に対して皮肉な言葉を向けることは、矯正のために良いテクニックである | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. 新米の先生は、生徒に対して十分厳しい監督を維持できないようだ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. 先生は教育法を生徒に批判されたら、その改訂を考えるべきだ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. 最善の校長先生は、先生が生徒を罰するときには無条件の支持を先生に与えるものだ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. 生徒は教室での先生の言葉に対して、反論を許されるべきではない | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. たとえそれが直ちに適用できなくとも、生徒に各課目ごとに多くの事実を学ばせることは正しいことである | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. 生徒の指導と諸活動に時間がかかりすぎ、授業の準備にかかる時間が殆どない | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. 生徒に優しくすると、しばしば生徒に度を越してなれなれしくさせることになる | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 1. 生徒は自分達で物事を決めることよりも、規則に従うことを学ぶほうがより大切である | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1 2. 生徒会は良い「安全弁」だが、学校の方針に対してあまり影響力をもつべきではない | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1 3. 生徒が教室で協力し合って勉強するときは、まかせておいてよく、先生の監督はいらない | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1 4. 生徒が学校で不潔な言葉を使うときは、それは不道徳的と考えられるべきである | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1 5. 生徒が許可なしにトイレ(便所)の使用を認められれば、生徒はこの特権を濫用するだろう | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1 6. ある少数の生徒は全くの不良で、そのように取り扱われなければならない | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1 7. 生徒に対しては、学校に彼等が来るのは学ぶためだということを、しばしばおしえてやる必要がある | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1 8. 学校の教材や設備をこわす生徒は、厳しく罰せられなければならない | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1 9. 生徒は教室で民主主義と無秩序の違いを理解することはできない | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2 0. 生徒は先生を困らせるために、よくわざと行儀の悪いことをする | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

《第四部》

1. あなたの校内の個人の福祉よりは、学校全体の福祉を重視する。

1. いつもそうする。
2. しばしばそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. 殆どそうしない。
5. 決してそうしない。

2. 部下との話し合いでは彼らに従う。

1. しばしばそうする。
2. かなりそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. たまにそうする。
5. 殆どしない。

3. あなたの学校では、先生の残業を奨励する。

1. 大いにそうする。
2. かなりそうする。
3. ある程度はそうする。
4. たまにそうする。
5. 殆どしない。

4. 学校ではあなた自身の新しい考えをためす。

1. しばしばそうする。
2. かなりそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. たまにそうする。
5. 殆どしない。

5. 部下がすることは支持する。

1. いつもそうする。
2. しばしばそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 決してしない。

6. おそまつな仕事は批判する。

1. いつもそうする。
2. しばしばそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 決してしない。

7. 部下が出来る以上のことを要求する。

1. しばしばそうする。
2. かなりそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. たまにそうする。
5. 殆どしない。

8. 重要な事には妥協を拒否する。

1. いつもそうする。
2. しばしばそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 決してしない。

9. 部下には日常の業務規則を守るように要求する。

1. いつもそうする。
2. しばしばそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 決してしない。

10. 部下に対しては彼等の個人的な問題で力になる。

1. しばしばそうする。
2. かなりそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. たまにそうする。
5. 殆どしない。

11. 新しい考えの採用には気乗りしない。

1. いつもしない。
2. しばしばしない。
3. 時おりしない。
4. 殆どそんなことはない。
5. 決してそんなことはない。

12. 重要な事柄では始める前に部下の了承を得る。

1. いつもそうする。
2. しばしばそうする。
3. 時たまそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 決してしない。

19. 部下に個人的な世話をしてやる。

1. しばしばそうする。
2. かなりそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. たまにそうする。
5. 殆どしない。

20. 締め切り期限に間に合わせることを強調する。

1. 大いにそうする。
2. かなりそうする。
3. ある程度はそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 全くしない。

21. 部下が下した決定事項は、あなたに報告するように強く要求する。

1. いつもそうする。
2. しばしばそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 決してしない。

22. 問題解決に新しい方法を提議する。

1. しばしばそうする。
2. かなりそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. たまにそうする。
5. 殆どしない。

23. すべての部下をあなたと同等のものとして扱う。

1. いつもそうする。
2. しばしばそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 決してしない。

24. 変化をもたらすことに意欲的である。

1. いつもそうだ。
2. しばしばそうだ。
3. 時おりそうだ。
4. 殆どそうでない。
5. 決してそうでない。

13. ことを進める方法の変更には抵抗する。

1. 大いにそうする。
2. かなりそうする。
3. ある程度はそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 全くしない。

14. 部下に特別な課題を相談なしに割り当てる。

1. いつもそうする。
2. しばしばそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 決してしない。

15. 質問の余地を与えぬ仕方で話をする。

1. いつもそうする。
2. しばしばそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 決してしない。

16. 他の学校の先をいくことの重要性を強調する。

1. 大いにそうする。
2. かなりそうする。
3. ある程度はそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 全くしない。

17. あなたの学校の特定の職員を批判するよりは、特定の行動を批判する。

1. いつもそうする。
2. しばしばそうする。
3. 時々そうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 決してしない。

18. 部下に、彼等の最善と思う仕方で、仕事をさせる。

1. いつもそうする。
2. しばしばそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 決してしない。

25. どれだけしなければならないかを話し合う。

1. 大いにそうする。
2. かなりそうする。
3. ある程度はそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 全くしない。

26. あなたの校内で誰れかが新しい考えをもちだすまで、待つ。

1. いつもそうする。
2. しばしばそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 決してしない。

27. 断固とした態度で統制をとる。

1. いつもそうする。
2. しばしばそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 決してしない。

28. 変化への示唆は拒否する。

1. いつもそうする。
2. しばしばそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 決してしない。

29. 部下の仕事を、彼等に前以て話をせずに変える。

1. しばしばそうする。
2. かなりそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. たまにそうする。
5. 殆どしない。

30. 部下にさせること、およびその方法を詳しく決める。

1. いつもそうする。
2. しばしばそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 決してしない。

31. 部下が自分の力いっぱい頑張っているかどうか、気をつける。

1. いつもそうする。
2. ~~しばしば~~そうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 決してしない。

32. 他の人達から嫌われることがあっても、部下をかばう。

1. いつもそうする。
2. ~~しばしば~~そうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 決してしない。

33. あなたの校内から出た提言は実行に移す。

1. ~~しばしば~~そうする。
2. かなりそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. たまにそうする。
5. 殆どしない。

34. あなたの行動の説明を求められても断る。

1. ~~しばしば~~そうする。
2. かなりそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. たまにそうする。
5. 殆どしない。

35. 部下に、あなたの学校全体のために犠牲を払うように求める。

1. ~~しばしば~~そうする。
2. かなりそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. たまにそうする。
5. 殆どしない。

36. 部下との相談なしに行動する。

1. ~~しばしば~~そうする。
2. かなりそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. たまにそうする。
5. 殆どしない。

37. 部下に一層努力するように絶えず要求する。

1. 大いにそうする。
2. かなりそうする。
3. ある程度はそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 全くしない。

38. 万事があなたの考えるようになされることを、要求する。

1. いつもそうする。
2. しばしばそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 決してしない。

39. 仕事の遅い人に対しては、励まして一層努力させる。

1. しばしばそうする。
2. かなりそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. たまにそうする。
5. 殆どしない。

40. 部下とは定期的に時間をとって合う。

1. いつもそうする。
2. しばしばそうする。
3. 時おりそうする。
4. 殆どしない。
5. 決してしない。

APPENDIX B - CORRESPONDENCES



REITAKU UNIVERSITY

Foreign Language Faculty

2-1-1, Hikarigaoka, Kashiwa-shi, Chiba-ken, 277 Japan

Telex 2975406 REITAC J

Telephone 0471-73-3605

127

June 12, 1986

Dr Johnnie L. Clark
Dean
Atlanta University
223 Jmaes P. Brawley Dr., S. W.
Atlanta, Georgia 30314-4391
U. S. A.

RECEIVED JUN 20 1986

Dear Dr Clark:

Thank you very much for your letter regarding Ms Gloria Clark to President Sentaro Hiroike of the Institute of Moralogy, who is concurrently the president of Reitaku University.

It's a pleasure for me to inform you that our Research Center for International Cultural Affairs offers Ms Gloria Clark an opportunity to stay and do research on our campus as a visiting researcher for two months, with accomodations in the girls' dormitory and board free of charge.

When she accepts our offer, we would like to know the date of her arrival here as soon as possible.

Sincerely,

Shigeru Taniguchi
Director of R. U. Research
Center for International
Cultural Affairs

ST/ki

DeKalb County School System



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Robert R. Freeman, Superintendent

3770 NORTH DECATUR ROAD, DECATUR, GA 30032

October 10, 1986

Ms. Gloria M. Clark
 1881 Valley Ridge Dr., S.W.
 Atlanta, GA 30331

Dear Ms. Clark:

This letter serves as permission for you to conduct your dissertation research in the DeKalb School District.

As you know, our major focus in the school system is to raise the level of student achievement, therefore, you are expected to adhere to the following criteria:

1. There must be an anonymity of the school system personnel that may be used in the research.
2. You cannot interfere nor take away any instructional time of students and teachers.
3. A completed copy of your research should be filed with my office.

You will be under the direction of Dr. Melvin Johnson, Area I Assistant Superintendent. Please give him a call when you are ready to begin your research. His telephone number is 243-0713.

If I may be of further help, please call me.

Yours truly,

Edward L. Bouie, Sr.
 Associate Superintendent

ELB:ocb

cc: Dr. Melvin Johnson

1881 Valley Ridge Drive, S.W.
Atlanta, Georgia 30331
July 7, 1986

Dear Participant:

I am a doctoral student at Atlanta University in the School of Education. In order to complete my studies, I must write a dissertation. My dissertation topic is "Leadership Behavior of Elementary School Administrators.

Enclosed is a copy of the questionnaire that I would like for you to fill out and return to me by August 15, 1986.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely yours,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Gloria Clark".

(Mrs.) Gloria M. Clark

GK:GMC
Encl:1

校長先生各位

私は米国アトランタ大学の助教授であり、同時に同大学院博士課程に学ぶものです。私の博士論文のテーマは「日・米の小・中学校長のリーダーシップ行動の研究」です。

私は、麗澤大学(柏市光ヶ丘2-1-1)の客員研究員としてこの7月16日に来日し、8月29日に帰国の途につきます。この間に、私の研究に関しまして、ご多用中大変恐縮でございますが、先生方のご協力を是非頂きたく切にお願いを申し上げる次第でございます。

本日お手元にアンケート用紙をお届けいたしました。ご面倒でしょうが回答をご記入くださいますようにお願い申し上げます。また何人かの方にお目にかかって直接お話しを伺いたく存じております。お電話でご都合をお伺いさせて頂くかも知れませんが、その節はよろしくお願い申し上げます。

以上、突然のことでご迷惑をおかけしますが、どうぞよろしくご協力の程を重ねてお願い申し上げます。

敬具

1986年8月2日

グロリア・クラーク
アトランタ大学助教授
麗澤大学客員研究員
自宅住所
1861 Valley Ridge Drive, S.W.
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